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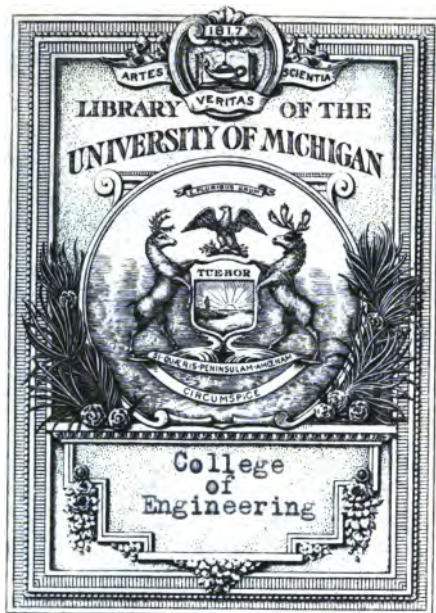
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INDUSTRIAL ELECTRICITY

Marquis, Racul

Electro=Mechanical Series

INDUSTRIAL ELECTRICITY

TRANSLATED AND ADAPTED FROM THE FRENCH
OF HENRY DE GRAFFIGNY

AND EDITED BY

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EDITOR'S NOTE

THE Editor in presenting this, the first of a series of volumes upon Electro-mechanics, does so with some diffidence; but he believes that there is room for these volumes, because they explain in very clear and non-mathematical language the many and various applications of electricity. In the original French many thousands of these works have been sold, and the Editor trusts that the same appreciation of the volumes may be shown in England and America.

It has of course been found necessary to modify and adapt the original French works to the needs of English readers.

The present volume may be accounted as introductory to the rest of the series. It is divided into short chapters, each dealing with a separate branch of practical electricity. On account of the magnitude of the subject, the information which they supply is necessarily meagre in character, and is only intended to give a general idea of electrical science and its practical applications. The other volumes of the series treat the more important of the branches here touched upon separately and in detail.

April 1898.

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INDUSTRIAL ELECTRICITY

CHAPTER I

NATURE OF ELECTRICITY

OUR ideas of the physical world are based on two
fundamental conceptions, those of force and matter.
Mentally, we are unable to conceive force as apart from
matter, and physically it remains an open question
whether the two are not in reality but different manifest-
ations of the same entity.   We conceive matter as being
composed of exceedingly small particles called atoms,
arranged in groups called molecules.   These molecules
are not rigidly connected to one another, and even in the
densest matter the intervals which separate them are
vast compared with their size, and may be likened to the
enormous distances which separate the stars.

Moreover, we have very good reason for believing that
there exists, throughout the entire universe, a subtle and
all-pervading homogeneous medium, known as the lumin-
iferous ether, which we shall allude to later.

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Matter can only be perceived through the medium of our senses; thus the more or less rapid movements of the molecules produce the sensations known as heat and cold. A body whose molecules are in more rapid motion than those of our own body appears to us to be hot, while one with slower movements appears to be cold. *Force* may be defined as that which tends to produce motion in matter or to change existing motion.

The atoms constituting matter are not necessarily all of the same size or weight. About seventy different sorts of atoms are known, one corresponding to each of the known elements. These elementary atoms are indestructible, and as far as we know indivisible. Force on the other hand is of one kind only, although manifested to us in such different forms as light, heat, electricity, etc. For instance, those vibrations of the ether known as electricity, remain electricity in passing along a conducting wire, become heat and light in a resisting wire, mechanical work in an electro-motor, and molecular work in an electrolytic cell.

Nothing is lost in nature, nothing is created. The number of atoms and the sum-total of the energy of the universe, are the same to-day as they were when the solar system existed only as an attenuated nebula, and will be the same when the earth shall have accomplished its final destiny.

A vibration in the luminiferous ether may, on reaching a body, either pass through it or be reflected at its surface. In both cases the vibration which leaves the body is not the same as the incident vibration. Thus the reflected

ray of light which leaves a mirror is not of exactly the same character as the incident ray. We have a similar phenomenon in the case of heat, sound, and electricity, and this modification of the reflected vibration is called *polarisation*. The phenomena of the polarisation of light have been very carefully studied by means of highly ingenious apparatus devised for the purpose, but less attention has been paid to the polarisation of other sorts of vibration, although they are known to exist.

We therefore see that all the phenomena by which matter is made manifest to us are closely related to motion of some kind or other. Sound, like heat and light, is a vibration, and the researches of Young and Fresnel have shown that space is filled by a medium, capable of vibration, namely the luminiferous ether, of which very little is known, except the mathematical conditions under which waves are propagated in it.

Clark-Maxwell, by the extension of the mathematical theory of light, showed that light and electricity were of exactly the same nature, and Hertz, the German physicist, by his experiments demonstrated the truth of this independently of all mathematical theory.

We can greatly assist our conception of electricity by the use of mechanical analogies. The two-fluid theory which is so helpful in electrostatics as to almost make us forget that it is only an analogy, becomes inconveniently complicated when applied to electro-magnetic problems. Faraday soon rejected the two-fluid theory when he came to consider the action of electric currents, and was the first to suspect the relation of electricity to light. He

himself did not succeed in demonstrating it, but he paved
the way for Maxwell, who proved that light and electric
vibrations are not only propagated by the same medium,
but are also modifications of the same state of the ether.

In order to completely establish the electro-magnetic
nature of light, it was necessary to show that theory agreed
with fact. Hertz succeeded in showing the inverse of the
above, namely, that electricity was propagated in a vibra-
tory manner, with a definite velocity equal to the velocity
of light.

Maxwell, developing Faraday's ideas concerning the part
played by the di-electric in the propagation of an electric
disturbance, arrived at the conclusion that such a disturb-
ance is propagated with a velocity equal to the ratio of
the electro-magnetic unit of quantity to the electrostatic
unit, and found that this velocity is the velocity of
light.

The effect on an electroscope of discharging a Leyden
jar at a distance of more than 10 metres is inappreciable,
and as the velocity of propagation of the electric disturb-
ance is about 300,000 kilometres a second, it follows that
the 10 metres between the source of the waves and the
electroscope would be covered in about $\dfrac{1}{3 \times 10^7}$ seconds.
It was found impossible to measure, or even to obtain
indications of such a very short interval of time. Cause
and effect seemed to be coincident. Even the time taken
by a Leyden jar to discharge is about 1000 times as long.
Hertz showed that by properly arranging the dimensions
of an electric circuit, a rapidly vibrating discharge could

be obtained whose period was about $\dfrac{1}{100,000,000}$ seconds, and which produced electric waves of less than 10 metres wave-length.

Hertz used for a circuit an induction coil whose secondary terminals were connected' to two spheres about 3 c.m. diameter. A difference of potential being set up between the spheres, an oscillatory discharge takes place which gives rise to electric waves. The electroscope consists of a metallic wire, bent into a circle, and terminated at its extremities by a pair of knobs which are brought close together but do not touch. At the instant when a discharge takes place between the large spheres, a very small spark is seen to pass across the gap of the electroscope, due to the rapid variation in the field of the electric force. There is a particular set of dimensions of the electroscope for which the sparks are greatest. This happens when the oscillations which the electroscope might produce itself, have the same period as those of the exciter. It only remains to be stated that an interval of time elapses between the discharge and the induced spark, which shows that the propagation of an electric wave is not instantaneous.

This sort of electroscope which Hertz used is called an electric resonator, for' reasons which are obvious. It remains to be shown that electric disturbances give rise to waves which are capable of interference, and therefore that electricity is propagated by periodic vibrations.

The method which Hertz employed is very similar to that used in studying sound-waves. A sound-resonator is

moved to different points of a room in which a sound is
produced; at certain points in the room the resonator
does not act so strongly as in others. This fact alone is
sufficient to establish the presence of vibratory motion.

It is found that two sound-waves of the same length
travelling along a line in opposite directions, produce this
effect, which is called stationary undulation. The points
where the sound is most intense are at equal distances
apart, and are called nodes. Savara determined the posi-
tion of the nodes resulting from the interference of a
sound-wave and its reflection travelling back from a wall
in the opposite direction. Hertz applied the same method
to electric vibrations; his exciter, consisting of an in-
duction coil and spheres, was placed at one end of a large
room, with its axis vertical. The opposite wall, about
10 metres off, was covered with zinc-foil connected to the
earth. The vibrations produced by the exciter were
reflected at this surface and interfered with the waves
travelling towards the wall, giving rise to stationary un-
dulations separated by fixed nodes. The wave-length of
the vibration is twice the distance between two consecutive
nodes. If the time of vibration is also known, the velocity
of propagation follows at once. By this method a velocity
is found which is very close to that deduced by Maxwell
from theoretical considerations, and equal to the velocity
of light.

In order to determine whether the waves are longi-
tudinal or transverse, an electric resonator, consisting of a
rectangle with two small gaps in its circumference, is
placed in the path of waves. If the vibrations are longi-

tudinal, the resonator acts, no matter whether it is placed perpendicular or parallel to the direction of propagation. If, however, the vibrations are executed transversely, the resonator acts in one position only and this last is found to be the case.

If we now place the apparatus for generating the waves at the focus of a concave mirror, a beam of parallel electric rays is projected which can be demonstrated by placing a resonator anywhere in its path. Other properties of light, such as refraction, can be shown to be also possessed by electric waves, prisms of asphalte or pitch being used. Polarisation of electric rays can also be demonstrated by experiment.

We have thus shown that light and electric vibration are one and the same thing, differing only in the lengths of the vibrations. All the proofs of geometrical optics hold equally well for light and electric vibrations, and optics are no longer confined to waves of a fraction of a millimetre in length, but embrace waves of any size whatever, visible or invisible. Light is therefore only electricity which is made manifest to us by one of our senses. Hertz himself wrote : " We henceforth see electricity, where formerly we did not even suspect its presence. The luminosity of every flame or atom becomes an electric phenomenon. Even if a body does not give out light, it may radiate heat and become the centre of electric disturbances. The domain of electricity is extended throughout nature.

Two problems only remain to be solved. Firstly, the mathematical and geometrical conditions of the existence

of electro-magnetic phenomena. The solution of this is, at the present date, very nearly complete. Secondly, what is the real nature of the electric and magnetic forces ? It seems as if greater acquaintance with the ether will not only reveal to us its properties, but might also furnish a clue as to the nature of force and mass, which are the very essence of nature. A corner of the veil has been lifted, although many points yet remain to be cleared up, in order to form a fundamental theory of energy. Truth gradually replaces error, and we are gradually beginning to spell the alphabet of nature, and to arrive at a knowledge of the laws which govern the universe.

CHAPTER II

WE have seen that electricity is merely undulatory motion similar to light. It is one form of the energy which is connected with matter, and it is a vibration of one particular order which is produced under certain conditions, and is analogous up to a certain point to the heat of a body.

Before going further it will be necessary to understand the different methods of measuring the motion of electricity. We may consider an electric current as analogous to a stream of water. This analogy is very close, and will give the reader a very good idea how an electric current is formed, and how it flows in a circuit.

In mechanics the potential of a body is a function of the forces which have previously acted on that body. If we consider a mass of liquid under the action of gravity only, the potential of this mass of liquid is proportional to its height above any given level.

If therefore we have two masses of water at different potentials, that is to say at different levels, a current of

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water will flow from the higher to the lower. If the masses of water are in two tanks, connected by a pipe, the greater the difference in the height of the tanks, the greater will be the pressure of the water at the base of the pipe, no matter what its cross section may be. We may consider the two terminals of a source of electricity as analogous to the two tanks, and the difference of electric potential of the two terminals to the difference of level of the tanks. The current which flows in a wire joining the two terminals is analogous to the current of water in the pipe. Another analogy is that of a hot body connected to a cold body by means of a bar which is a conductor of heat. Heat will flow from the hot body to the cold body, in consequence of the difference in the temperature existing between them. Difference of temperature, level, or potential, are therefore names applied to phenomena which are similar although in reality different.

Since the time of Volta, who was the first to study electric currents, the term *electro-motive force* (E.M.F.) has been applied to that which generates a *difference of potential* between two points of an electric circuit. The electromotive force required to set up a difference of potential between two points is equal to that potential difference. If two chemically different bodies are brought together, an E.M.F. establishes a potential difference between them, which varies in magnitude with different substances. This is the first fact to be noted in voltaic cells.

The current in a circuit always flows from a point at a higher potential to a point at lower potential. If we have a *closed circuit* with a voltaic cell or generator of E.M.F.

included in it, the cell may be looked upon as a sort of pump. The electricity in the outer part of the circuit enters the cell at the negative terminal at low potential, and is pumped up to a higher potential by the cell, before leaving it at the positive terminal. Electricity is to-day an exact science governed by laws founded on a sound mechanical basis. These laws were formulated by a congress of electricians, and are based on the researches of such physicists as Ampère, Faraday, and Ohm. Since 1881 a system of units and measurement has been universally adopted in order to define the various electrical quantities.

This system we will now study.

The *fundamental units* are the *centimetre ;* the *gramme-mass,* and the *second,* these being the units of length, mass, and time respectively, from which all other physical and electrical quantities are derived. These three units form what is known as the C.G.S. system (or centimetre, gramme, second), and their quantities are represented by the symbols L, M, and T.

All other units, such as those of surface, velocity, energy, etc., are *derived* from these three, as will be seen from the following definitions of a few of those most used in electrical problems.

The unit of *acceleration* is that of a body whose velocity increases one centimetre per second every second. The acceleration of a body falling under the influence of gravity is about 981 centimetres per second per second. The unit of *force* is that force which gives the unit mass of gramme an acceleration of one centimetre per second per second,

and is called the dyne, and is equivalent to the weight of $\frac{1}{981}$ grammes. The unit of *work* is the work done by unit force when its point of application is moved through one centimetre in the direction of the force. It is called the erg. The British engineering units are derived in a similar way from the foot, the pound mass, and the second. The C.G.S. fundamental units are generally too small for practical purpose, and are called absolute units. In practice larger units are used, which have ratios to their respective absolute units which are powers of 10, as the following table shows :

Quantity to be measured.	Name of practical unit.	Symbol.	Number of C.G.S. units in one practical unit.	Multiples.	Sub-multiples.
				Units.	Units.
Electromotive force	Volt	E	10^8	mega = 1 million	deci = 1 tenth
Current	Ampère	I	10^{-1}	myria = 10,000	centi = 1 hund.
Resistance	Ohm	R	10^9	kilo = 1000	milli = 1 thous.
Quantity	Coulomb	Q	10^{-1}	hecto = 100	micro = 1 mil-
Capacity	Farad	C	10^{-9}	deca = 10	lionth
Self-induction	Henry	L	10^2		
Strength of Field	Gauss	G	10^8		

Electro-motive force.—This corresponds to the pressure of water in hydraulics, and is that which tends to produce the current. The *volt* is the unit of E.M.F., and is approximately equal to that of one Daniell cell.

Current.—We measure the current flowing in a wire by the amount of electricity which passes any cross-section in one second, and in a manner similar to that in which we measure the current of water in a pipe by the volume

of water which passes any particular cross-section in one second. The *ampère* may be defined as that current which will deposit 1·118 milligrammes of silver per second, or decompose ·09321 milligramme of water in the same time.

Resistance is the obstruction offered to the current in passing through a circuit, and is equivalent in the hydraulic analogy to the friction of the water in the pipe. This resistance is measured in *ohms,* and causes a gradual fall of potential along a wire in which a current is flowing, and is the inverse of the conductibility of the wire. The ohm is the resistance of a column of mercury 106 centimetres long and one square millimetre in cross-section. A copper wire 48 metres long and 1 millimetre in diameter has a resistance of about 1 ohm.

The volt, the ampère, and the ohm are connected together by what is known as Ohm's law, namely, that the strength of the current flowing between any two points of a wire is directly proportional to the electromotive force in that wire, or what is the same thing, the difference of potential between the two points is inversely proportional to the resistance between the two points. Kirchoff formulated several laws concerning the flow of currents in closed circuits which are well worth knowing, as they allow the currents flowing in complicated circuits to be easily deduced.

Representing the different units by their symbols given in the table above, we have the following relations:

$$I = \frac{Q}{T} \qquad C = \frac{Q}{E} \qquad I = \frac{E}{R}$$

Quantity.—The unit of quantity is the *coulomb*, and is the amount of electricity which flows in one second past a point in a conductor carrying a current of 1 ampère, and is not to be confounded with the strength of the current.

Capacity.—An electric condenser can be compared to a reservoir for holding gas. The quantity of gas which the reservoir will hold will depend on the pressure of the gas in it and the size of the reservoir. In the same way the quantity of electricity which a condenser will hold depends on its size, and the pressure of the electricity in it. The unity of capacity is the *farad*, and is a condenser which will hold one coulomb of electricity at a pressure of one volt. Practically such a condenser would be of very great size, and much too costly to construct, so commercially a smaller and more convenient unit, the *microfarad*, is used.

Power.—The power, either given out or absorbed by an agent, is the rate at which the agent does work or has work done on it. In the same way, the current in a circuit may be doing work either mechanical, chemical, or otherwise, and the rate at which it does that work is the power absorbed in the circuit. The product of the current and the electro-motive force is the measure of that power. The unit of electric power is called the *watt*, and is that absorbed by a circuit whose resistance is such that an E.M.F. of 1 volt causes a current of 1 ampère to flow round it.

∴ Power in watts = current × volts = 10^7 ergs per sec.:

$$\text{or } W = E \times I$$

Watts being measured in ergs per second, the watt-hour, which is the work done in 1 hour by an agent whose power is 1 watt, has been introduced to avoid large numbers. One horse-power is exerted by an agent which lifts 550 lbs. through a height of 1 foot against gravity in one second, and is equal to 746 watts, therefore we have the following relations :

$$1 \text{ watt} = 10^7 \text{ ergs per sec.}$$
$$1 \text{ horse-power} = 746 \text{ watts.}$$
$$1000 \text{ watts} = 1 \text{ kilowatt.}$$

Work or Energy.—The amount of work or energy produced or expended is measured by the number of *joules* or volt-coulombs, and is equal to the watts × time. If no external work is done by a circuit, all the energy of the current is turned into heat, and the quantity of heat evolved in C.G.S. units in a time t is $\dfrac{I^2R.t,}{J}$ where I is the current flowing, R is the resistance of the circuit, and J is the mechanical equivalent of heat. The C.G.S. unit of heat is the calorie, and is the quantity of heat required to raise 1 gramme of water 1° C. In order to produce 1 calorie of heat we must do work equivalent to raising ·424 kilogramme through a height of 1 metre. This is therefore the mechanical equivalent of heat, and conversely 1 calorie can do ·424 kilogramme-metre of work.

In the next chapter we will tabulate afresh a complete list of all the units used in practical electricity, and we will conclude by giving Kirchoff's laws.

Laws of branched circuits.—(i) In any branching network

of wires, the algebraic sum of the currents in all the wires that meet in any point is zero.

(ii) When there are several electro-motive forces acting at different points of a circuit, the total electro-motive force round the circuit is equal to the sum of the resistances of its separate parts, multiplied each into the strength of the current that flows through it.

We give below an example of a simple circuit. It is necessary in order that a current may flow that the circuit should be continuous, the circuit being then a closed circuit. If there is a discontinuity, no current will flow, and the circuit is then open.

In Fig. 1, N P represents the source of the E.M.F. of the circuit, which may conveniently be taken to be a voltaic element, such as a bichromate cell. We may connect several of these together so as to form a *battery*. One end of the circuit is joined to the positive pole of the battery, and the other end to the negative pole. The circuit is therefore closed through the battery.
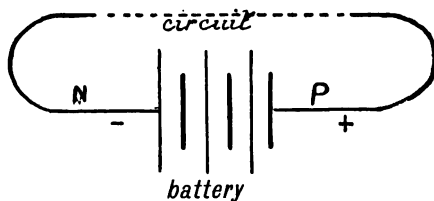
FIG. 1.—Typical Circuit.

The current starts from the positive pole where the potential is highest and flows round the *external circuit* to

the negative pole where the potential is lowest, and passes through the battery. While passing through it the current has its potential raised by the E.M.F. of the cells to that of the +^{ve} pole. The path of the current through the cells is called the *internal circuit*.

The external circuit contains all the electrical apparatus on which the current is required to act. The wire coming back from the apparatus is called the *return wire*. In certain cases the earth itself may be used as a return wire. This consideration is of great importance in telegraphy, as it allows of great economy in the length of wire used.

Certain signs and conventions have been adopted in the graphical representation of electric circuits. A cell is represented by a long and thin stroke and then a short thick one drawn at right angles to the conductor, the short stroke signifying the positive pole. The *line wires* are those connecting the source of E.M.F. with the apparatus where the current is made use of.

If we have a number of cells, they can be connected together in two ways. If all the +^{ve} terminals are connected together and all the −^{ve} terminals are connected together the cells are in *parallel*. If the cells are connected in a string, opposite poles being connected together, the cells are said to be in *series*. In a similar manner, any other set of electrical apparatus can be connected up either in series or parallel, or a combination of both.

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CHAPTER III

IN certain parts of the world are to be found hard black stones known as lodestones, which possess the curious property of attracting iron or steel, and they are composed of an oxide of iron called magnetite, and their peculiar property is known as magnetism. If a bar of iron, or better still a piece of hard steel, be rubbed with them, it will be found to have acquired the same magnetic property, and it becomes an artificial magnet. If suspended freely at its centre of gravity, such a magnetised bar of iron will always take up a position pointing north and south. The north-seeking end is called the *north* or *north-seeking pole,* and the other end the *south pole* of the magnet. The magnet tends to return to this one position, because the earth itself is a vast magnet whose poles are in the vicinity of the ends of its axis. The line joining the two poles of a magnet is called its magnetic axis.

If we take two magnets and present the north-seeking pole of one to the south-seeking pole of the other, they will be found to attract one another, while if similar poles

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such as the south poles be presented, they repel one another. The attraction or repulsion is proportional to the product of the intensities of the poles, and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them. The attraction also depends on the nature of the intervening medium.

If a piece of paper is placed over a magnet and fine iron filings dusted over its surface, the filings settle down into curved lines, showing that the magnetic force is not the same at all points in the space or *field* surrounding the magnet. Any space where there is a magnetic force acting is called a *field of force*, and the lines formed by the iron filings on the sheet of paper are called *lines of force*, and give at each point in the field the direction of the magnetic force at that point. This direction is that in which a small magnetic pole would be urged if placed there.

The lines of force emanating from the north pole of a magnet are considered positive, and those from the south pole negative.

Faraday found that lines of force tend to make themselves as short as possible, and that lines of force of the same sign tend to separate, while those of opposite signs run into one another. The intensity of a magnetic field is measured by the number of lines of force which pass through it, and consequently the force exerted on a bar of iron will be greater according as it cuts a larger number of lines of force. For any given surface the magnetic force on it can therefore be represented by the number of lines which pass through it. If we consider a certain number of lines of force as enveloped by a surface, we

obtain a tube of force. If this tube of force have not the same area of cross section at all points, but always contain the same number of lines, the force at any point will be inversely as the area of the cross section of the tube at that point.

Mathematically, the strength of the magnetic field at any point is the resultant of all the forces which would act on a unit pole placed there. The resultant force is equal to the number of lines of force per unit area at the point, and it is in the direction of those lines of force.

This is the same as saying, that the strength of the field depends on the density of the lines of force. The *flux* of force is the total number of lines which pass through any surface, and the strength of magnetisation of a body is the ratio of its magnetic moment to its volume. Bodies which exhibit the phenomenon of magnetisation are called magnetic bodies; such bodies are cobalt manganese of platinum, but the majority of bodies do not show any magnetism of their own, and these are termed paramagnetic bodies. In every case of magnetisation of a body, the lines of force which pass through it, do so by virtue of the magnetising force. This magnetising force may be exerted by the body itself, as is the case in permanent magnets, or it may be due to some external cause, as in electro-magnets, where a current flowing round a coil of wire produces it.

The total number of lines which this force causes to flow through a space is called the flux, and the flux per unit area of the cross-section of the space is called the *induction*, and is denoted by **B**. The amount of the in-

duction depends upon what material fills the space con-
sidered, and this gives rise to a quantity called perme-
ability, denoted by μ, which is the ratio of the induction
to the magnetising force producing it. Consequently the
greater the permeability of the space, the greater will be
the number of lines of force generated in it by the same
magnetising force. The permeability of iron gradually
increases up to a certain limit of induction, but above
that limit it falls rapidly. The permeability of a vacuum
is taken as unity, and is practically the same as that
of air.

The specific magnetic resistance of a body is the inverse
of its permeability, and is called its reluctivity.

Electro-dynamics is that part of the science of electricity
which treats of the force which one current exerts on
another. Electro-magnetics is that branch which deals
with the production of magnetic phenomena by means of
electric currents. When a current flows along a wire a
magnetic field is always produced in its neighbourhood,
the lines of force circulating round and round the wire.
We therefore see that the action of currents on one an-
other will depend on the laws which govern lines of force,
and that the magnetic field produced by a current is of
exactly the same nature as that produced by a permanent
magnet.

Ampère, the celebrated French physicist, discovered the
following laws :—(1) Two parallel wires having currents
flowing in the same direction attract one other, and if the
currents are in opposite directions they are mutually
repelled. (2) Two portions of circuits crossing one another

at an angle, attract one another, and tend to become parallel if the currents both flow towards or away from the apex of the angle. They repel one another if one current approaches the apex while the other recedes from it. (3) The force exerted between two parallel portions of circuits is proportional to the products of the strengths of the two currents and the lengths of the portions, and so inversely proportional to the distance between them. The whole theory of dynamo-electric machinery is founded on these laws. The following laws are also important :—
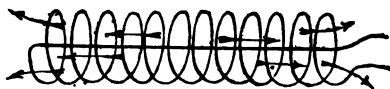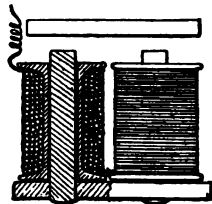
FIG. 2.—Solenoid.   FIG. 3.—Electro-magnet.

Maxwell's Law.—If a movable circuit with a current flowing in it is brought into the field of a magnet, it tends to take up a position, embracing the maximum number of lines of force possible. By means of Laplace's law we are also able to determine the strength of field produced by an element of circuit at a point in its neighbourhood.

Electro-magnets.—A spiral coil of wire which has a current flowing in it, and is without any iron core, is called a solenoid (Fig. 2). In consequence of the current, a magnetic field is produced within the spiral, whose lines of force are parallel to the axis of the coil. Such a

solenoid behaves exactly like a magnet, so that if we present the pole of a powerful permanent magnet to one end of the coil, it is repelled or attracted, depending on the similarity or dissimilarity of the poles.

The only difference is that in a solenoid the poles are at the ends, while in a bar magnet they are at a short distance from them.

If we wind several layers of insulated wire on a bobbin with an iron core we have an electro-magnet. The lines of force generated by the solenoid pass through the iron, which has a very much greater permeability than air, consequently a greater number of lines of force are induced in the iron than would have been if there had been no iron core.

In practice, an electro-magnet consists of a rod of soft annealed iron, bent into the shape of an U, or else two rods riveted to a flat iron base or yoke : the two rods form the core of two bobbins which are slipped over them. The bobbins are wound with silk or cotton-covered copper wire, which is more or less thick according to the use to which it is to be put (Fig. 3).

Lenz and Jacobi gave the following laws, which are only true for small electro-magnets :—

The strength of an electro-magnet is proportional to (1) the current; (2) the number of turns of wire in the coil; (3) the square root of the diameter of the core.

If we consider a continuous line drawn such that at every point its tangent is parallel to the direction of the magnetic force, the work done in moving a unit once round this line is the *line integral* of magnetic force round

it, and is called the *magneto-motive force* in this *magnetic circuit*.

The induction in a bar of iron depends on the strength of the field in which it is placed, but this law is not an exact one, because a bar subjected to a variable magnetising force, exhibits a lag of magnetisation when it is being demagnetised.   This lag is called hysteresis, and its effect is to heat the bar of iron with consequent loss of energy.   This loss of energy has to be taken into account in practice, especially in magnetic apparatus and dynamos.

Induction.—If we move a conducting wire in a magnetic field an E.M.F. is generated in it, causing a current to flow called an induced current, which lasts only as long as the movement continues.   Magnets and currents both give rise to magnetic fields, which in their turn may generate induced currents.   These phenomena were studied by Faraday, and called the phenomena of induction.

If we have a circuit acting inductively on a second circuit, the two are called *primary* and *secondary* circuits respectively, and the currents in them are called primary and secondary currents.   An induced current is produced whenever the flux of lines passing through a circuit is either increased or decreased.   An induced current may be therefore produced in three separate ways: by the action of currents, by the action of magnets, and by the action of the earth's magnetic field.

It is not, strictly speaking, a current which is induced in the circuit at all, but an E.M.F. which is generated by the changing of the flux passing through the circuit,

which may or may not produce a current according as the circuit is *closed* or *open*. Self-induction is the inductive effect of a circuit on itself.

Maxwell enunciated the following principle : if a closed circuit is displaced in any magnetic field in such a way as to alter the number of lines of force passing through the circuit, a current is generated in it which lasts only as long as the flux is changing.

If we suppose the positive direction of lines of force to be that along which a free N pole would move, and the positive direction in a circuit to be the same as the direction in which the hands of a clock move, then we may say that if the flux enters the circuit in a $+^{ve}$ direction, any diminution of that flux will produce a current in the positive direction round the circuit.

The following law was discovered by Faraday : if a straight conductor moves in a magnetic field so as to cut lines of force at a given rate, a difference of potential is generated between its ends, which is proportional to this rate, if the conductor is and moves normally to the direction of the lines of force.

Lenz found that if we have a relative displacement between a conductor and a magnetic field, the induced current is such as to tend to prevent the motion. If we combine this last with Maxwell's law, we see that the direction of the induced current for any variation of flux is such as to oppose this variation by its own action on the flux. If we divide the time during which the induced current is flowing into a number of small intervals, then the quantity of electricity which passes is equal to the

sum of the small intervals, each multiplied by the current which flowed during that interval.

If two circuits are close to one another a portion of the flux generated by one will pass through the other. The *co-efficient of mutual induction* of the two circuits is the number of lines due to the first circuit, which also pass through the second circuit when unit current flows through the first circuit. The phenomenon of *self-induction* is absolutely analogous. If we suppose the two circuits above to approach one another so as to actually coincide, the mutual induction becomes a self-induction of the circuit. The mere fact, therefore, of a current in a circuit generating lines of force, creates an E.M.F. in that circuit, which is in a contrary direction to the E.M.F. which produced the current. This back E.M.F. of self-induction is proportional to the number of lines of force which unit current would produce when flowing round the circuit. This definition is only true when the permeability of the medium surrounding the circuit is constant. We will now give a table recapitulating all the terms so far established.

RÉSUMÉ OF UNITS AND DIMENSIONS OF ELECTRIC QUANTITIES

Physical quantity.	Symbol.	Dimensions.	Name of C.G.S. unit.	Practical unit.	English unit.
Fundamental.					
Length	L	L	centimetre	metre	foot
Mass	M	M	mass of the gramme	mass of kilo-gramme	mass of pound
Time	T	T	second	second, hour	second
Geometrical.					
Surface	S or A	L^2	square cm.	square metre	square foot
Volume	V	L^3	cubic cm.	cubic metre, litre	cubic foot
Angle	a, β, θ	—	radian	degree, minute, and second	degree, minute, and second
Mechanical.					
Velocity	v	L T	cm. per sec.	metre per sec.	foot per sec.
Angular velocity . .	ω	T	radian per sec.	revolution per min.	revolution per min.
Acceleration . . .	a	$L\,T^2$	cm. per sec., per sec.	metre per sec., per sec.	feet per sec., per sec.
Force	F	$L\,M\,T^2$	dyne	gramme kilo-gramme	poundal
Energy, work . . .	W	$L^2\,M\,T^2$	erg	kilogramme metre	foot pound
Power	P	$L^2\,M\,T^3$	erg per sec.	kilogramme metre per sec.	foot pound per sec., or H.-P.
Pressure	p	$L\,M\,T^2$	dyne per cm.^{2}	kilogramme per square centi-metre	pound per square inch
Moment of Inertia .	I	$L^2\,M$			
Electro-magnetic.					
Resistance	R, r	L T	—	ohm	ohm
Electro-motive force	E, e	$L^{\frac{3}{2}}\,T^{-2}\,M^{-\frac{1}{2}}$	—	volt	volt
Potential difference .	V, v	$L^{\frac{3}{2}}\,T^{-2}\,M^{+\frac{1}{2}}$	—	volt	volt
Current	i	$L^{\frac{1}{2}}\,M^{\frac{1}{2}}\,T^{-1}$	—	ampère	ampère
Quantity.	Q	$L^{\frac{1}{2}}\,M^{\frac{1}{2}}$	—	coulomb	coulomb
Capacity	C	$L^{-1}\,T^2$	—	farad and micro-farad	farad and micro-farad
Electric energy . .	W	$L^2\,M\,T^{-2}$	—	joule	joule
Electric power . . .	P	$L^2\,M\,T^{-3}$	—	watt, kilowatt	watt and kilo-watt
Specific conductivity	δ	$L^{-2}\,T$	—	ohm per centi-metre cube	ohm per centi-metre cube
Self-induction . . .	L	L	—	Henry	Henry
Magnetising force .	H	$L^{\frac{1}{2}}\,M^{\frac{1}{2}}\,T^{-1}$	—	ampère turn per centimetre	ampère turn per centimetre
Magneto-motive force	F	$L^{\frac{1}{2}}\,M^{\frac{1}{2}}\,T^{-1}$	—	,,	,,
Magnetic.					
Intensity of pole . .	m	$L^{\frac{3}{2}}\,M^{\frac{1}{2}}\,T^{-1}$			
Intensity of field . .	B	$L^{\frac{1}{2}}\,M^{\frac{1}{2}}\,T^{-1}$			
Flux of force . . .	Φ	$L^{\frac{3}{2}}\,M^{\frac{1}{2}}\,T^{-1}$		No special unit.	
Magnetic induction .	B	$L^{\frac{1}{2}}\,M^{\frac{1}{2}}\,T^{-1}$			
Permeability . . .	μ	—			
Magnetic reluctance .	L	L^{-1}			

CHAPTER IV

THE methods of measuring electrical quantities may be divided into two classes, according as they are compared with similar quantities, or have their value deduced from their effect on various other known quantities. To the first class belong all methods of opposition, substitution, and comparison : all measuring instruments are based on one or other of these two principles. Instruments for measuring currents are of several kinds, the most simple being the *galvanometer*, whose action is electro-magnetic, consisting of a magnetised needle freely suspended inside a coil. The needle takes up a position which varies with the strength of the current flowing round the coil.

We will give a few examples illustrating those most generally met with in practice.

Tangent galvanometer.—In this instrument the current in the coil is proportional to the tangent of the angle of deflection. The scale is of circular shape, and must always be placed in the same position relative to the magnetic meridian. The needle consists of a very small

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magnetised bar, suspended at the centre of a large circular coil, with a fine pointer attached to it in order to magnify the deflection produced, and thus increase the sensibility of the instrument.

Sine galvanometer.—In this type the deflecting force is proportional to the sine of the angle of deflection, and the arrangement of needle and scale is the same as in the preceding case.

Astatic galvanometer.—This instrument was invented by Nobili. The needle is made up of two, suspended parallel to one another so as to increase the sensibility by diminishing the controlling force of the earth's field. The needles carry a light pointer which moves over a finely divided scale, allowing the deflections to be easily read.

Reflecting mirror galvanometer.—The reading of very small deflections of the needle was always a source of great trouble until Lord Kelvin invented his reflecting galvanometer, which allows exceedingly minute deviations of the needle to be easily detected and measured. To the magnetised needle is attached a light mirror on which falls a beam of concentrated light ; this beam is reflected and forms a spot of light on a scale some distance off. A very small motion of the needle may be made to produce a large deflection of the spot. Some of these galvanometers are constructed so as to be dead-beat, that is to say, a small aluminium vane is attached to the needle, which offers a considerable resistance in air friction to sudden movements. The spot of light therefore quickly takes up its final position, without first oscillating to and fro.

D'Arsonval dead-beat galvanometer (Fig. 4).—This gal-

vanometer is essentially different from those which have
preceded it, in that the controlling magnet is fixed, whilst
the coil through which the current flows is movable. This
coil is stretched tight between the poles of a powerful per-
manent magnet, by two fine metallic threads, one above
and one below. These metallic suspensions also serve the
purpose of conveying the current to the movable coil.
These galvanometers are usually made reflecting.

Fig. 4.—D'Arsonval Galvanometer.

All the galvanometers hitherto discussed are constructed
to carry none but very small currents. If we require to
measure a large current which might damage these
instruments, a known fraction of the whole current is
allowed to pass through it. The galvanometer is then
said to be *shunted*. This shunting of the instrument is
usually effected by means of coils of known resistance en-

closed in boxes, which only allow $\frac{1}{10}$, $\frac{1}{100}$, or $\frac{1}{1000}$th part of the whole current to pass through it. The whole current is therefore measured, although only a portion of it passes through the galvanometer.

Electro-dynamometers.—The principle of these instruments is based on the action of one current on another. The current to be measured passes through two coils, one of which is fixed, and the other, a movable coil, is suspended by a torsion head. When a current passes through, the force with which the coils attract one another is measured by the amount of torsion produced, which is proportional to the square of the current. In the best Siemens' dynamometers, currents varying from 1 to ·001 ampère can be measured.

Galvanometers are not suitable for the measurement of currents in commercial applications of electricity, and they have been replaced by another type of instrument which has a needle moving over a scale, from which volts or ampères can be read off directly. These *voltmeters* and *ammeters* stand in the same relation to the generator of electricity as the pressure-gauge does to the steam-engine. They are therefore indispensable where electricity is generated on a large scale, and much time and ingenuity has been expended on the construction of the reliable and accurate instrument, now to be found in every well-equipped electrical installation. We will now proceed to describe some of the best-known types for use in both direct and alternate current work.

Davies' unipolar voltmeter (Fig. 5).—This instrument consists principally of a rectangular coil of wire moving

round a single magnetic pole and rotating around one of its sides as axis. A permanent magnet maintains a uniform field of force in a narrow annular gap. The magnetic circuit being a nearly closed one (the thickness of the air gap is less than $\frac{1}{8}$ in. and the cross sectional area of it about 3 sq. in.), the reluctance of the circuit is

FIG. 5.—Davies' Ammeter (Muirhead and Co.).

low, so that permanency of magnetic induction is well assured, and an instrument is produced giving uniform scale divisions throughout. All forms of this instrument having spiral springs for the directive force have a wide range of action, the scale divisions forming an arc of about 240°. It is made in a vertical form for wall purposes, and in a horizontal form for bench use, reading accurately

from 0·01 volt or lower, up to 2·5 volts; scale marked in ·01 divisions, on a 6-inch dial.

Messrs. Muirhead and Co. also construct ammeters on the same principle.

Nalder Brothers' ammeters and voltmeter (Fig. 6).—The base of these instruments is of cast-brass, turned, polished, and lacquered. On this are cast bosses to receive the working parts. The coil is mounted on ebonite, so as to give high insulation, and is screwed direct to the base.

FIG. 6.—Ammeter by Nalder Brothers and Thompson.

It is wound with a thick wire in the ammeter and a fine wire in the voltmeter. For the ammeter the ends of the winding are brought to heavy brass lugs, which pass through the base of the instrument, and are arranged for socket connections. These lugs are carried on ebonite, thus ensuring high insulation. The windings for ammeters, up to 500 or 600 ampères, is of braided cable, and the ends are sweated very carefully into the lugs to ensure good contact. The dial is carried on the bobbin itself, and is therefore highly insulated from the base.

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The cover fits to the base, but does not touch the dial as shown in the figure by the black line round the bevel. This ensures perfect insulation of the case from the winding, and it is quite safe to lay one's hands on the voltmeters when measuring 2000 volts. The needle is a specially shaped piece of soft iron fixed on a light shaft with steel pivots at either end. The pivots turn in two polished sapphire centres. The ammeters have a uniform scale the whole way up, but in the voltmeters the scale widens out at the working pressure for which the instrument is designed.

Some voltmeters and ammeters are made so as to record their indications on a paper band, which is drawn by clock-work past a style attached to the end of the needle. The paper band has lines printed on it forming a scale of volts or ampères, ruled so as to be concentric with the axis of the needle. The band is usually placed round a cylinder, which is rotated by clock-work or by a mechanism regulated by the current itself. The cylinder may be made to rotate once in any convenient period. An example of such a recording voltmeter is given in Fig. 7.

This instrument is constructed so as to measure alternating as well as direct differences of potential. Its action is not electro-magnetic, but is founded on the fact that metals expand when heated. The terminals of the voltmeter are connected to a long and very fine wire, which becomes heated by the current flowing through it. This wire is passed over a series of pulleys so as to take up as little space as possible; one end of the wire is fixed, and the other is attached to the needle carrying a style at

its end. When a difference of potential is applied to the terminals, the wire becomes longer in consequence of the heating due to the current flowing in it, and this
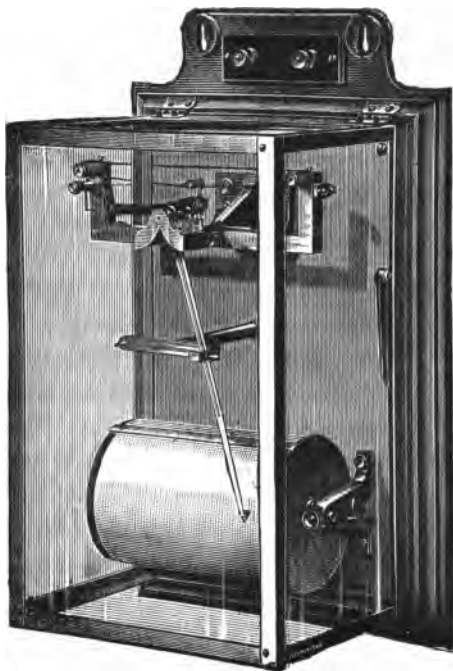
Fig. 7.—Holden Hot-wire Voltmeter.

allows the needle and style to move across the paper scale. Recording ammeters have been constructed on the same principle, by attaching a style to the end of the needle. It is very necessary that all these instruments should be

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the inside with a transparent conducting varnish, so as to entirely shield the instrument from external electrostatic action. By properly altering the width of the plates the scale of the voltmeter can be opened out to any required degree at its centre, the normal working pressure being an approximately fixed point.

It is necessary in all galvanometers, whether ammeters or voltmeters, that the working parts should be as light as possible, so as to reduce their moment of inertia and make them move quickly. In a central station the instruments, such as switches, voltmeters, ammeters, etc., are all
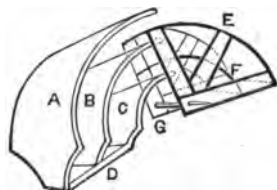
Fig. 8.—Ayrton-Mather Electrostatic Voltmeter. Diagrammatic sketch of the Needle and Inductors.

arranged on a large switch-board, so that the attendant in charge can see at a glance whether the pressure of the mains is correct, and that none of the dynamos are over-loaded. Several ingenious arrangements have been invented for automatically giving an alarm if the pressure is too high or too low, or if the current in any circuit is too great, by the ringing of bells, lighting of coloured lamps, etc.

By means of these various instruments the engineer can instantly tell exactly what the plant is doing, and always has complete control over the electrical output of the

station. By the use of recording ammeters, a curve is obtained on the paper, which, supposing the potential difference of the mains to be constant, shows the exact load on the station for every moment of the day, the knowledge of which is a very important factor in the economy of an electric lighting station.

Wattmeters.—Recording wattmeters are sometimes more advantageously used than ammeters if the current exceeds 2000 ampères. They measure the product of the volts and ampères, and usually consist of one long thin and one short thick coil without any iron cores, in the same way as dynamometers.

Measurement of resistances.—The operation which has most frequently to be performed in all classes of electrical work is the measurement of resistance. The necessary apparatus for such measurements consists of a battery of cells, a galvanometer, and a number of coils whose resistances are known. In order to facilitate the measurements, the coils are, as a rule, grouped together in boxes, and they can be intercalated in the circuit by simply inserting metallic plugs. These standard resistances are usually made of German silver wire, or an alloy of platinum and silver, covered with silk and wound on bobbins, the whole being saturated with paraffin wax to ensure good insulation. The two ends of one of the coils are connected respectively to two brass blocks, and each block can be electrically connected to its neighbours by inserting a brass plug between them.

The coils are so arranged that resistances of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 500, 1000, 2000 ohms can be introduced

into the circuit, by combining the given resistances in different ways.

The following method, devised by Christie and applied by Wheatstone, to measure resistances is most frequently used, and is known as Wheatstone's Bridge. The circuit of a battery is made to divide at A (Fig. 9) into two branches, A B C and A D C, which re-unite at C. The current in the circuit is therefore divided in two portions, which flow along A B C and A D C, called the arms of the

battery
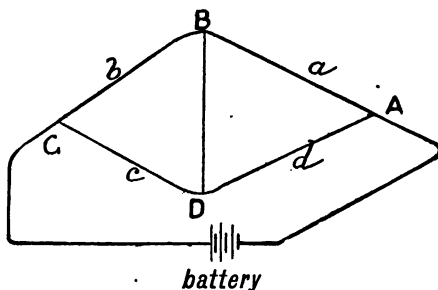
FIG. 9.—Wheatstone's Bridge

bridge. If we consider two points B and D in the two circuits, and join them by a galvanometer, they will not, in general, be at the same potential, and consequently a current will flow through the galvanometer. It is possible, however, by moving one of the points, say B, along the conductor to C, to find a point in it which is at the same potential as D. When this is the case, no current will flow through the galvanometer, and it may be shown that the ratio of the resistances A B and B C is equal to the ratio of the resistances A D and D C. If therefore A D is

an unknown resistance, we can determine it by giving the proper values to the resistances C D, A B, and B C.

It is usual in practice to assemble for convenience all the resistances necessary for making a measurement into one box. Various arrangements of the coils in such resistance boxes are in use: the most general is to have resistances of 1, 2, 2, 5, 10, 20, 20, 50, 100, 200, 200, 500, from which any whole number of ohms from 1 up to 1000
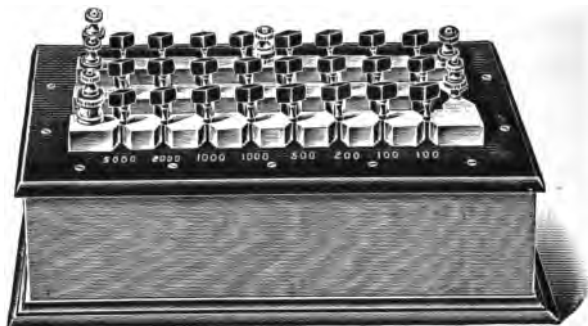
Fig. 10.—Resistance Coils arranged for use as a Wheatstone's Bridge.

can be obtained. These correspond to the resistance C D in Fig. 9. In addition to these resistances, another set are provided in the box, for obtaining a suitable ratio for the arms, corresponding to A B and B C in Fig. 9. They consist of two sets of 10, 100, and 1000 ohms, from which ratios of $\frac{1}{1}$, $\frac{10}{1}$, and $\frac{100}{1}$ can be obtained. In another arrangement (Fig. 12), these last two sets of resistances are replaced by a long wire T T′ provided with a sliding piece d, which corresponds to the point B in Fig. 9.

Standards of electro-motive force and resistance.—We have previously stated, that differences of potential are measured by means of voltmeters. These voltmeters
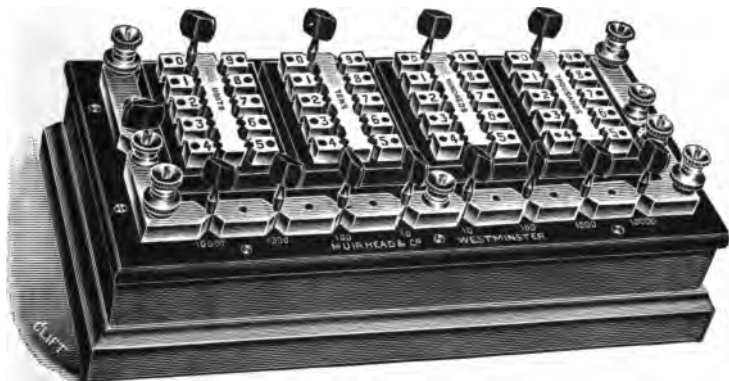
Fig. 11.—Resistance Coils.
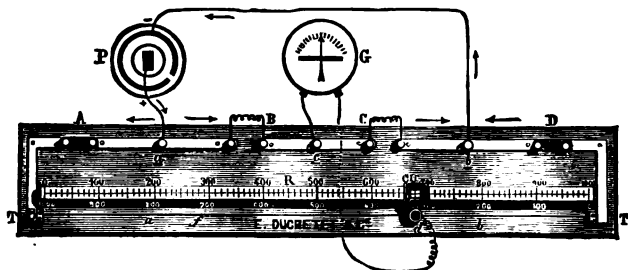
Fig. 12.—Slide Wire form of Bridge.

must be calibrated by means of standards of electro-motive force. No exact unit standard of electro-motive force has yet been constructed, and for this purpose electricians have been obliged to use primary cells whose E.M.F. is very

accurately known, such as Latimer Clarke's, the Post-Office, Warren de la Rue's, and other cells. Latimer Clarke's cell (Fig. 13) was adopted by the Chicago Congress, as affording a fairly accurate standard volt, and consists of two glass tubes, with a connection between them. In one
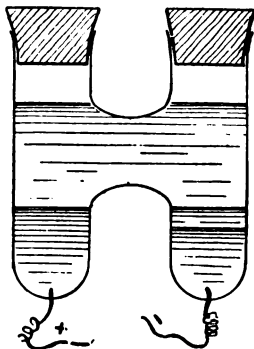
FIG. 13.   Standard Clarke Cells.   FIG. 14.

of the tubes is placed an amalgam of pure mercury and zinc, and in the other, pure mercury with a layer of sulphate of mercury on top of it. The cell is then filled up with a saturated solution of sulphate of zinc, into which a crystal or two of the zinc sulphate is dropped to prevent super-saturation. The tubes are sealed up air-

tight with plugs of paraffin wax, and the poles are formed by platinum wires, which are fused through the bottom of each tube, and make contact with the mercury. The E.M.F. of such a cell is about 1·35 volts at 15 degrees Centigrade.

The Post Office standard is simply a Daniell cell in an ebonite box. A zinc strip is immersed in a solution of zinc sulphate, surrounding a porous pot containing a copper plate immersed in a strong solution of copper sulphate. At the bottom of the porous pot is placed a small stick of zinc, on which is precipitated any copper from the sulphate which might have passed through the porous pot; in this manner the two liquids do not mix, and the cell gives a very constant E.M.F. of about 1·08 volts on an open circuit.

The Warren de la Rue standard cell consists of a glass tube containing a solution of chloride of ammonia, in which is immersed a stick of zinc and a porous pot made of parchmentised paper. This pot contains a silver wire with silver chloride fused round it, and is closed by a plug of paraffin wax. This cell gives an E.M.F. of about 1·05 volts.

The unit of resistance is the ohm. A standard resistance usually consists of a German silver wire, wound on a bobbin, and enclosed in a metallic box. The ends of the wire are connected to massive copper blocks, which are sometimes formed into cups to hold mercury. Into these mercury cups are plunged the ends of the wires going to the rest of the apparatus in use. The resistance of such a standard is not constant, but varies with its temperature. In order to make accurate use of such a standard, it must

therefore either be kept at the temperature at which the
maker guarantees it to be correct, and which is marked
on the box, or a correction must be made for the tempera-
ture at the moment of the experiment.

Measurement of electric energy and power.—We must
remember that electric power measured in watts is the
product of current in ampères, and the difference of poten-
tial measured in volts.   In practice this product is obtained
by means of a special apparatus called a wattmeter, in
which there are two coils, one consisting of a short thick
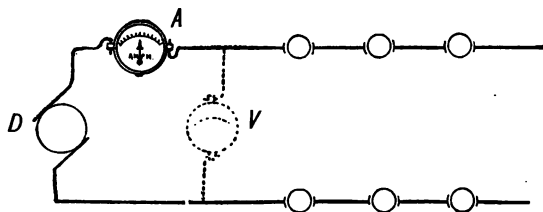
Fig. 15.—Method of joining up a Voltmeter and an Ammeter in a circuit.
V, Voltmeter.   A, Ammeter.   D, Dynamo.

wire and the other of a long thin wire.   The current to be
measured passes through the thick wire, while the long
wire is connected to the two points, in between which it is
required to measure the power developed.   The deflection
of the needle of these instruments is proportional to the
product of the currents in the two circuits, but as the long
wire has a large resistance, the current flowing through it
is proportional to the difference of potential between its
ends.   The deflections therefore indicate the product of
the current and the electro-motive force, that is to say, the
power.

Electric energy is power multiplied by time. It can be measured by means of a recording wattmeter, based on the principle we have just explained, and in which the needle carries a style. A curve can thus be traced on a paper cylinder moved by clock-work, the area of the curve traced measuring the total energy expended or absorbed.

A great number of the electric energy meters supplied by the electric light companies to their consumers, are simply wattmeters, which record their own indications at short intervals by means of clock-work, as in the meters of Cauderay and Déjardin, but other and more accurate systems have been devised, such as the Thomson-Houston, Bellié, and other meters, in which the rapidity of motion of the recording apparatus is regulated by the current. In the Aron meter there are two pendulums regulated so as to have the same period of oscillation. On of them is an ordinary pendulum, and the other is formed by a steel magnet, and above this magnet is a solenoid through which passes the current to be measured. Each pendulum is moved by a spring and clock-work, and a differential mechanism which they both control moves the recording needle.

Measurement of quantity of electricity.—Quantity of electricity is measured by the intensity of a current, multiplied by the time during which that current flows. The measurement of quantity is usually effected by means of an apparatus known as a *Voltameter,* in which the decomposition of conducting liquid is brought about by the current. Various systems have been devised for this purpose, notably by Edison, Lippmann, Busch, and others.

The Edison voltameters are used as a shunt, and only take a known fraction of the whole current to be measured. The conducting liquid was copper sulphate in the early ones, but this has been replaced by zinc sulphate in the latest types, which are used as energy meters. The plates which the apparatus contains are weighed once a month, and the number of coulombs of electricity which have passed, is calculated from the gain in weight, and from the fact that one ampère hour (3600 coulombs) deposits 1·228 milligrammes of zinc. In other types by the same inventor, the plates become reversed by an automatic movement when their weight reaches a certain value ; the plate which formerly was anode becomes cathode until they are again reversed. The number and period of the reversals is measured by a counter, and a simple calculation allows the quantity of electricity which has passed to be measured. These meters are much used in America.

There still exist voltameters with silver electrodes immersed in a solution of silver nitrate. The metal of the positive plate is dissolved by the action of the current, and an equivalent quantity is deposited on the negative plate. The plate is weighed before and after the experiment, and the quantity of electricity which has passed through the apparatus is calculated on the basis that one coulomb (one ampère second) deposits ·00118 gramme of silver.

The above constitute the principal apparatus and methods used in the electric industry, for determining the value of the different quantities which make up any electric current.

CHAPTER V

Theory.—If we take a vessel containing brine or weak sulphuric acid, and place in it a plate of copper and a plate of pure zinc, as long as the two plates do not touch one another nothing happens, but if we join them by a wire the zinc will be immediately attacked by the acid. Bubbles of hydrogen are also liberated on the copper, and if we bring a compass needle near the wire it is deflected, showing that a current is flowing in it. This phenomenon may be explained by considering the molecules of the sulphuric acid in solution, and imagining the equilibrium of the sulphuric acid molecule to be destroyed by its solution in water. The molecule is thus split up into two, one containing hydrogen and the other sulphur and oxygen: these are called ions. When a current flows the sulphur and oxygen attack the zinc and form zinc sulphate, while the hydrogen ions are deposited on the copper plate, and the energy liberated by the action on the zinc supplies the energy of the current. If we now break the connection between the two plates, the electric

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action immediately ceases, the equilibrium of the molecules being restored. The plates themselves, however, remain at different potentials, so that on joining them by a conductor, a current flows from one to the other, and the strength of current which flows will naturally depend on the chemical affinities of the substances concerned, the area of the surface of metal attacked by the acid, and the total resistance of plates, liquid, and conductor.

A current will continue to flow until either all the zinc or sulphuric acid has been used, that is, assuming that the hydrogen generated at the copper plate is continuously removed; gases being very bad conductors of electricity, a film of hydrogen bubbles offers increased resistance to the flow of current. A film of hydrogen also diminishes the effective E.M.F. of the cell by setting up an opposing electro-motive force, for hydrogen is almost as easily attacked as zinc, especially when freshly deposited. If the film of hydrogen is therefore allowed to remain on the surface of the plate, the cell is said to become *polarised*. We will explain later the various means adopted in order to neutralise the effects of polarisation.

History.—In the year 1799 Volta, professor in the University of Pavia, devised the first chemical generator of electricity. It consisted of columns of alternate zinc and copper discs, separated by pieces of flannel moistened with brine. The first modification of this voltaic pile was due to Cruickshank, who suggested placing the plates vertically in a vessel filled with a solution of brine. Dr. Wollaston in 1815 increased the surface of the .copper plates in order to minimise polarisation, and Offerhaus

and Hare devised a spirally constructed cell in 1821. In this last arrangement the plates of copper and zinc, separated by strips of india-rubber or vulcanite, are bent round into a spiral roll, and the active surface, for the amount of space taken up, is thereby much increased. This cell is capable of giving a large current, but the surface of the zinc soon becomes covered with zinc sulphate, which greatly increases the resistance and produces internal short circuits; these defects soon caused this cell to be abandoned. Single-fluid cells, in which acidulated water is the only fluid, have long since fallen into disuse, being replaced by other more convenient systems, which we shall now describe in detail.

Copper sulphate cells.—The principle of this cell was first suggested by the French physicist Becquerel in 1829, but Daniell was the first to practically realise it. The negative pole of the battery is a rod of zinc, lightly amalgamated and immersed in a 10% solution of sulphuric acid contained in a porous pot. The positive pole is a copper cylinder surrounding the porous pot, the whole being placed in a glass vessel containing strong copper sulphate solution. The copper sulphate absorbs the hydrogen deposited on the copper plate, the result being that pure copper and not hydrogen is deposited on it. The electromotive force of this cell is approximately one volt, and its internal resistance is anything from one-fifth to several ohms, and it is consequently incapable of producing large currents. As long as the copper sulphate solution is concentrated there is no polarisation, and its E.M.F. is therefore very constant. Owing to this constancy, this type of

cell is much used where large currents are not required, as for instance in telegraphy or for electric clocks.

This cell has been improved and modified from time to time by various inventors. In the Calland cell the porous pot is dispensed with, and crystals of copper sulphate are placed at the bottom of the glass vessel, and cover a copper plate to which is soldered a wire covered with gutta-percha. A circular disc of zinc is suspended from the top of the vessel and is immersed in the pure water with which the vessel is filled; the manipulation of the battery is thus considerably simplified. In the above cell the two liquids are only separated by their difference of density. Minotto improved on this by introducing a layer of coarse sand above the copper sulphate, which separates them more effectively. The Vérité cell (Fig. 24) is provided with a glass sphere placed at the top of the vessel, in which are placed crystals of the sulphate which serve as a store to keep the sulphate solution thoroughly saturated.

M. Jeanty has devised a Daniell cell, called by him the Fulgur, consisting of a square wooden box, very carefully made, and lined on the inside with copper. This vessel contains the depolarising solution, and the copper lining is the positive electrode. Placed in it is a second receptacle containing crystals of the depolarising copper sulphate, and also a porous pot containing the zinc and the active liquid. Each cell has an orifice near the top, opening into a gutter, which prevents the liquid from rising higher than a certain level. The receptacle containing the crystals of copper sulphate is pierced near its base with holes, in order to allow the saturated solution of copper

sulphate to flow out into the cell, when the lighter liquid containing the products of the chemical action in the porous cell are drawn off at the above-mentioned orifice. The porous pot acts as an osmotic diaphragm, and allows the solution, charged with zinc sulphate, to escape into the outer vessel by the simple process of osmosis. This weak solution of zinc sulphate is lighter than the saturated solution of copper sulphate, and rises to the top, where it may be drawn off. The liquid in the outer vessel consists at any instant during the action of the cell of a series of superposed layers, whose density gradually decreases on ascending to the top. Those at the bottom consist of saturated copper solution, while near the surface the liquid is very nearly pure dilute zinc sulphate solution. The flow of the saturated solution of copper sulphate into the outer vessel is regulated in various ways, by different instructors. From the large sizes of this cell currents up to 10 ampères may be drawn at an effective pressure of one volt. The current is as near as possible constant until the plate of zinc constituting the negative pole is completely consumed. This plate is about $\frac{1}{3}$ in. thick when new, and will last several hundred hours before it is necessary to replace it. It is sufficient to attend to the battery once a week, and to thoroughly clean it out once a month, in order to ensure regular and constant generation of the current.

Cells using nitric acid.—The first cell using nitric acid as a depolarising agent was invented by Grove in 1839. It consists of an outer cell of glazed porcelain or glass, containing an amalgamated zinc plate and dilute sulphuric
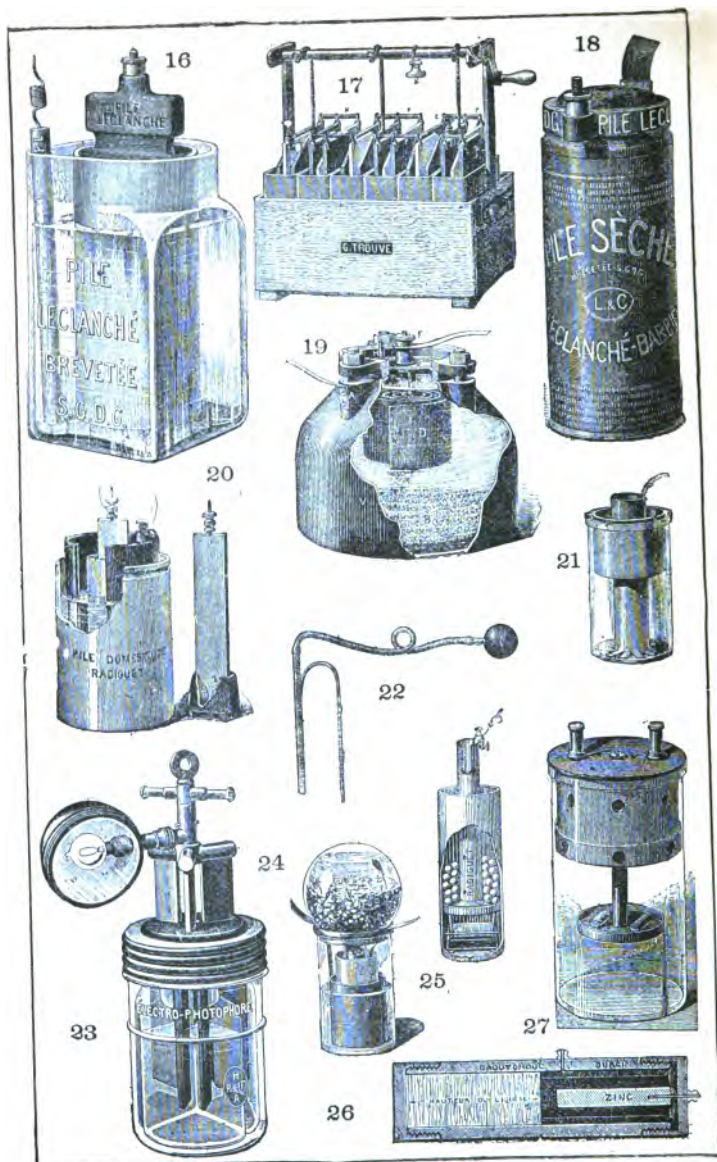
Figs. 16—27.—Primary Cells.

acid. In the inner porous cell a piece of platinum immersed in concentrated nitric acid serves as the positive pole. The E.M.F. of this element is high, being about 1·9 volts, with a low internal resistance, which allows a large current to be obtained without there being much difference between the E.M.F. of the cell and the potential difference of its terminals.

A large number of different arrangements of this cell have been invented, notably the Bunsen element (Fig. 20), in which the expensive platinum plate is replaced by a block of gas carbon; also the Calland cell, in which the porous pot contains a solution of saltpetre, concentrated sulphuric acid, and nitric acid. Tommasi closes up the porous pot by means of a plug of paraffin wax, which prevents nitrous fumes from being given off into the air, but at the same time sensibly diminishing the E.M.F. D'Arsonval places the carbon outside and the zinc in the porous pot. The Ruhmkorff cell is rectangular in shape, the depolarising agent being a solution of potassium or sodium bichromate in a mixture of nitric and sulphuric acids. The shape of the cell and the composition of the depolarising agent is capable of almost infinite variety.

Bichromate cells.—The bichromate battery, which is due to the chemist Poggendorf, is constructed both as a single and two-fluid element. In both cases the positive pole is formed by one or more plates of gas carbon, either sawn in the crude state, or pounded and compressed into the right shape. The negative pole is a plate of amalgamated zinc. In the single-fluid type the liquid is a solution of sodium or potassium bichromate in water, to

which is added sulphuric acid in varying proportion. The best-known type of single-fluid bichromate cell is the bottle cell of Grenet (Fig. 28), which is very useful when a current is wanted for a short time, as in the laboratory, or for medical electricity. Batteries of four to ten elements placed side by side (Fig. 17), with a small windlass or other apparatus for raising the zincs all together out of the
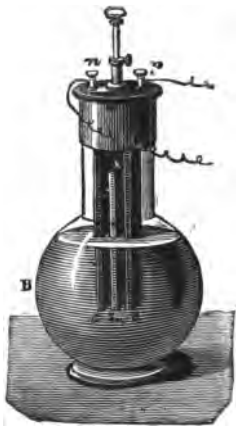
FIG. 28.—Bichromate Cell.

liquid when the battery is not in use, are very convenient where a higher E.M.F. is required. They are generally filled with a mixture of about 200 grammes of bichromate and 400 grammes of sulphuric acid per litre of water, and will generate about 20 to 24 watts per second per cell, for about 3½ hours. There are a host of other cells of this type, which differ only in their shape and in the composition of the liquid mixture.

In the two-fluid cells the amalgamated zinc is kept separate in a porous cell containing dilute sulphuric acid, which is itself immersed in a glass or porcelain vessel containing an acid solution of bichromate of potash, which acts as a depolariser. Polarisation and the liberation of hydrogen are more thoroughly destroyed in this type than in most of the others, and the current it furnishes is consequently more constant, but, on the other hand, the internal resistance is considerably increased by the porous pot, which is a disadvantage.

Many attempts have been made to obtain a longer duration of the current, or to produce a greater output with the same constancy of E.M.F. Among cells invented with this object in view, we may mention the non-polarising cell of Cloris-Baudet, which has an internal porous pot containing sulphuric acid and bichromate crystals; the siphon cell by the same inventors, which is provided with india-rubber siphons for causing the dilute acid and the bichromate to circulate through all the elements of the battery, so as to completely exhaust the active materials; also the circulating batteries of Siemens, Hospitalier, and others, in which the cells are arranged one above the other in tiers, the liquid passing through each cell in succession, so as to make sure of its parting with all its oxygen at the electrodes; finally M. Radiguet's constant two-fluid cell, which is one of the most convenient and economic. In nearly all the bichromate cells it is necessary to lift up the zincs out of the acid when they are not in use, otherwise chemical actions go on, which would very soon exhaust the batteries. M. Radiguet has

invented several ways of getting out of this difficulty, so as to always have the battery ready for instantaneous use. In one of them the zinc dips its end into a small basin of mercury made of paraffined wood; in another (Fig. 27) there is a small platform at the bottom of the porous pot, on which can be heaped granulated zinc or any old pieces which have been discarded from other cells.

M. Radiguet has also arranged a siphon (Fig. 22) for changing the liquid in any cells. The siphon draws up liquid into itself by squeezing an india-rubber ball, and discharges it on again compressing the ball. The cells can be thus easily re-charged with liquid without moving them from their position.

Potassium bichromate has been advantageously replaced by its active agent, chromic acid. The action of the cell is thereby considerably strengthened, and from ·25 to ·4 ampère per square centimetre of zinc surface can be obtained from cells using it as a depolarising agent.

A very light form of bichromate cell was devised and used by M. Renard for some experiments on navigable balloons at Meudon, consisting of a cylinder of platinised silver or a tube of carbon forming the positive pole, and an ordinary zinc rod forming the negative pole. The liquid used was a solution of chromic acid in hydrochloric acid, with sulphuric acid added when it was required to increase the output of current. About 15 litres or about 3 gallons of the mixture were required to produce one horse-power, and the total weight of the battery was 50 lbs. per horse-power.

This is about as light as it is possible to make primary

cells, but even with this exteme lightness, the expense of working and maintenance is so great, as to render them unfit for any but laboratory experiments, or for generating very small currents, such as are required for electric bells, telephones, etc. The cost of lighting a 16 candle-power incandescent lamp by primary cells would be about 6*d*. per hour, an expense which forcibly limits the applications of this type of generator of electricity.

Intermittent batteries.—To this class belong all cells which cannot be used for more than a few minutes together, after which they become polarised, and require to be left to themselves to recover. The best-known type is the battery invented by M. Leclanché (Fig. 16), which is universally used for electric bells, telephones, and for other domestic purposes, in which a battery is required for only a few moments at a time, and which shall always be ready for immediate use, and not waste away between whiles. The cells require very little attention, and the cost of their maintenance in working order is negligible. Since its invention, this form of primary cell has been considerably modified and improved, and several different types exist. Usually the positive pole is a mixture of coarsely-pounded gas carbon and manganese peroxide, enclosed in a porous pot, and the negative pole is a zinc rod. The porous pot is sometimes dispensed with, and the manganese applied in a conglomerate block to the face of the carbon. The liquid is always a solution of sal ammoniac in water. The electro-motive force of a new Leclanché is about 1·5 volts, and its resistance from ·2 to 2 ohms, according to its size. In consequence of the high

internal resistance, only very small currents can be drawn from it, and even that for only a short time, so that it is limited to the uses above-mentioned. As the cell is in other respects very constant, and only requires re-charging about once every three or four months, it is very well adapted for domestic purposes.

Other cells have been devised on something the same principle as the Leclanché, using sal ammoniac or some other non-acid liquid, but capable of generating larger currents. The Warnon cell contains a cloth bag filled with coke and
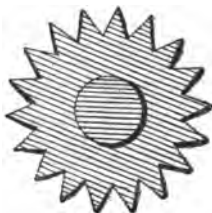
FIG. 29.—Goodwin's Carbon (section).

peroxide of manganese; the Maiche element uses the oxygen of the air as a depolariser; Goodwin makes use of corrugated carbons so as to increase the surface of the positive pole (Fig. 29), in order to keep the resistance as low as possible. None of these types have been commercially successful, and the Leclanché cell, with a porous pot or conglomerate blocks, is practically the only one used at the present date.

Dry batteries (Fig. 18).—This type of cell, in which the depolariser is solid, and the liquid is soaked up in some absorbent material, has lately come into favour, especially in

Germany, but as a rule they have the disadvantage, that when once the materials are exhausted, they cannot be replaced, and the cell is of no further use. The best dry cells are constructed by Siemens.

Thermo-electric generators.—If two different metals be joined together by solder, and the junction of the two heated, it is noticed that an electro-motive force is generated at this point. Many inventors have attempted to make use of this phenomenon to produce electric currents by the direct application of heat. The discovery of thermo-electricity dates from 1822, and is due to Seebeck, and since then thermo-electric generators, or thermopiles as they are called, have been devised by various inventors. The best known are: the thermo-electric multiplier of Melloni, which is an instrument of extreme sensitiveness, and capable of measuring very small differences of temperature. Clamond has constructed powerful thermopiles of iron and galena; others have been invented by Noé, Jacques, etc.

The thermopile consists of a large number of small pairs of two different metals, usually antimony and bismuth joined together in a series. Alternate joints are heated while the remainder are kept cold. Thus all the antimony-bismuth joints starting from one end of the chain are heated, while the bismuth-antimony joints in the same direction are kept cool. As a generator of electricity, the efficiency of the thermopile is very low, probably not more than 1% of the total heat supplied to it being turned into electricity. It has been calculated that even in the best types, such as the Chaudron generator, over 1000

cubic feet of coal-gas would have to be burnt to produce one horse-power hour, whereas a good gas-engine only burns about 20 cubic feet in order to do the same amount of work.   For this reason, this class of apparatus has been confined to laboratory instruments, and will probably never take a place in the commercial generation of electricity.

CHAPTER VI

ACCUMULATORS

AN accumulator is an apparatus in which electrical energy may be stored up as chemical work, to be given out again when required. The action of an accumulator may be compared to a reservoir into which water is pumped at a more or less rapid rate, and from which it may afterwards be drawn, at a constant rate, which may even exceed that at which it was filled. In the accumulator the current of electricity which charges and discharges it represents the stream of water; but we must not push the analogy too far, for it is not electricity which is stored up in the accumulator; the electrical energy is converted into chemical work in the cell, producing various chemical actions. Thus when an electric current is passed through lead plates immersed in dilute acid, the metal is oxidised by the phenomenon of electrolysis, and a small portion of the positive lead plate is converted into peroxide of lead, whilst the negative plate becomes spongy. If the current is stopped, and the plates joined by a conducting wire, a current flows through it in the opposite sense,

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which lasts until the plates have returned to their original condition. While the current flows, the chemical energy which had been produced by the original *charging* current is converted back into electric energy.

Ritter was the first to construct a secondary cell, but he only succeeded in getting out of the battery a very small portion of the energy which he put in.

Gaston Planté constructed the first really practical accumulator, consisting of two sheets of lead rolled up without actual contact, dipping into dilute sulphuric acid. He *formed* the plates by sending a current through them, first in one direction and then in the other, a great number of times, so as to make them capable of preserving and discharging the energy stored up in them. M. Faure perfected this first accumulator by reducing the time required to form the plates, which at first took several months of the charging and discharging process. M. Faure covered the plates with a coating of red-lead, which rapidly becomes peroxidised at the anode, and reduced to spongy lead at the cathode, when a current is passed through the cell to charge it. This was the first step towards *forming* the plates artificially, and established an entirely different type from those formed naturally. Both methods of forming the plates are in use at the present day, some makers preferring the artificial, others the natural method of formation; others again combine the two. We will now describe a few of the best-known types.

Tudor accumulator.—This accumulator is founded on Planté's invention, but has been modified, in order to make the perfect cell of to-day. It is found that the

accumulation of energy is proportional to the depth of the layer on the plates, which is oxidised. It must be remembered that the repeated oxidation of the metal and its return to its first state, which constitutes the *formation* of the plates, are operations which proceed very slowly, and the length of time taken by the process is quite incompatible with the rules of rapidity and economy which regulate, or should regulate, commercial industry. The Tudor system of accumulators was designed to avoid this inconvenience as much as possible, and is largely used on the Continent and at home for central stations. The principal characteristics of the Tudor accumulators are their mechanical strength, their very great active surface, and the small quantity of oxide necessary for their formation. The skeleton of the plate is cast with a surface, scored with horizontal grooves. The plate is first formed by the Planté process, and then the grooves are filled with oxide and the plate formed afresh.

It is found that in all accumulators, the oxides of lead, laid on by the Faure process, tend to scale and drop off to the bottom of the accumulator after a time. In the Tudor accumulator the pasted oxide drops off also, but there is left the underneath plate, which was originally formed by the Planté process, and which, in the course of the usage which it has undergone, has much increased in capacity.

The Tudor secondary cell was designed principally for central stations, and is constructed so as to be capable of a much higher rate of discharge than the normal, without risk of injuring the plates. The electrodes are kept as far as possible apart, and the bottoms of the vessels have

been arranged so that any scales or dust of oxide which
may drop off the plates shall not, under any circumstances,
be productive of short circuits.

Accumulators are very seldom moved after being once
placed in position, and so the connection of one cell to the
next is often made by melting together the *lugs* of the two
cells : the piece of lead to which all the plates in a cell of
the same sign are joined is spoken of as a *lug*. This melt-
ing together of the lugs ensures good electrical connection,
which is of the greatest importance in practical working.

As a rule, each cell is required to furnish a current
which would be too great for a single positive or negative
plate without making it inconveniently large, so that a
number of smaller plates of each kind are put into a cell,
and each set connected together to a lug. There is as a
rule one more negative than positive plate, the positive
plates being sandwiched in between the negative plates.
The cells contain as a rule 5, 11, 19, and 33 plates depend-
ing upon their *capacity*, which is measured in ampère
hours. The Tudor Company guarantees its cells for ten
years, with a depreciation of $3\frac{1}{2}\%$ of the prime cost.

Faure-King accumulator.—This accumulator (Fig. 30),
invented by Mr. C. A. Faure and Mr. F. King, and con-
structed by the Electrical Power Storage Company, repre-
sents the most recent developments of the storage cell.
The plates belong to the type of pasted or artificially
formed plates. The frame-work of each plate consists
of an alloy which plays the combined part of conductor
and support for the active material, and is only slightly
expansible. Each plate, whether positive or negative, is .

inserted into an envelope, composed of a special form of celluloid, which resists destructive action on the part of the oxides, the gases, and the electrolyte. A further support
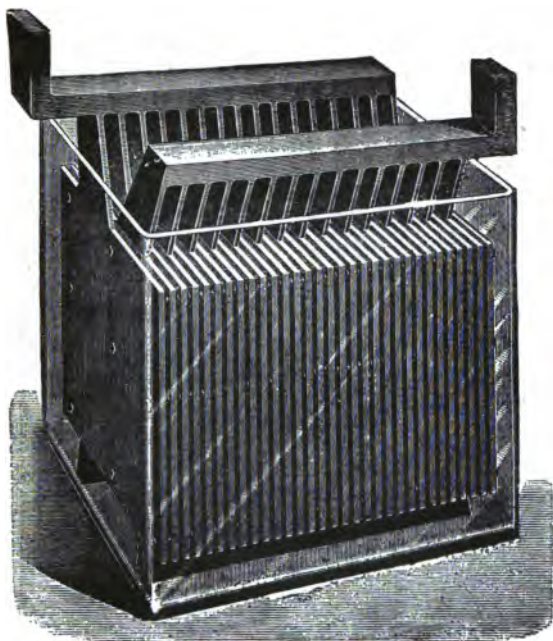
Fig. 30.—Faure-King Cell.

is provided in each plate by a number of studs, the stems of which pass through the body of the plate, and thus form double-headed bolts holding the surfaces of the envelopes and the material contained in them firmly together.

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These cells are made in various types according to the uses to which they are to be put. In the traction type the approximate complete weight per kilowatt-hour spread over five hours' discharge is about 140 lbs., at a discharge rate of 15·5 ampères per square foot of plate.

Dujardin accumulator.—Except for the No. 1 type of 15 ampère hours' capacity, in which glass vessels are used to hold the electrolyte, all these accumulators are contained in metallic boxes, cast in one piece, and provided with a movable lid. The plates are of the Planté type, and are built up of a number of lead strips. The positive plates are made slightly larger and thicker than the negative, and the normal discharge rate is about 10 ampères per square foot of positive plate. The sides of the vessels have a transparent pane let into them, in order to enable one to see at a glance the height of the liquid within.

Epstein accumulators. — The plates are also of the Planté type, and are prepared by boiling in a 1% solution of nitric acid and water, which renders the lead porous. In addition to this the plates are finely corrugated so as to greatly increase the surface. The normal rate of discharge is 30 ampères per positive plate.

Crompton-Howell accumulator.—The surface of the plates of this accumulator when unformed has a crystalline appearance in consequence of the peculiar process of making them. The lead alloy is melted, and then allowed to crystallise by slow cooling, and the plates, being sawn out of the solid crystalline mass, present a peculiar appearance. This process renders them porous to start with, and they are then further formed by the ordinary Planté

process. Considerable space is allowed between the plates for free circulation of the electrolyte.

Faure-Sellon-Volckmar.—The illustration on this page
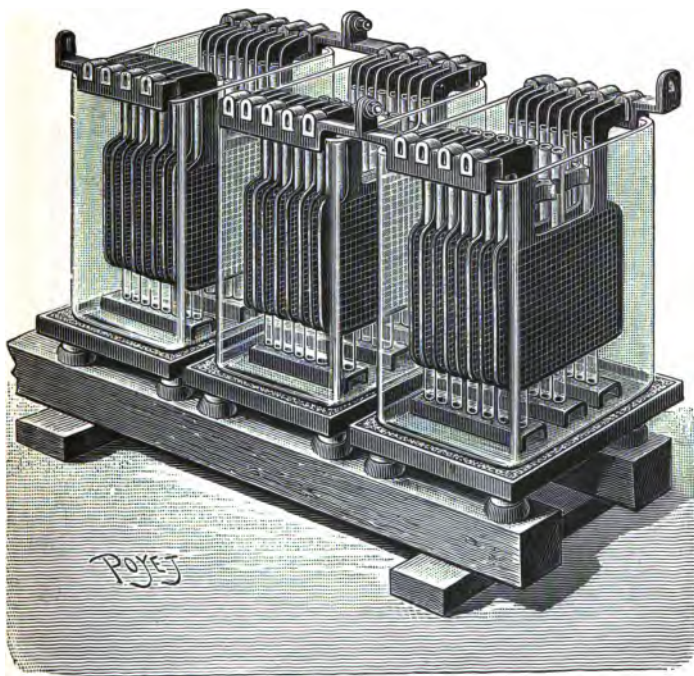
FIG. 31.—Faure-Sellon-Volckmar Cells constructed by Valls et Cie.

gives a very good idea of these cells, which have been specially designed to obviate most of the difficulties found in the employment of pasted cells. The plates are suspended at a considerable distance from one another and

from the bottom of the vessels, so that there is very little fear of scale and particles of oxide making short circuits between them. Glass tubes are inserted between the plates to make sure that they are held at the proper distance apart.
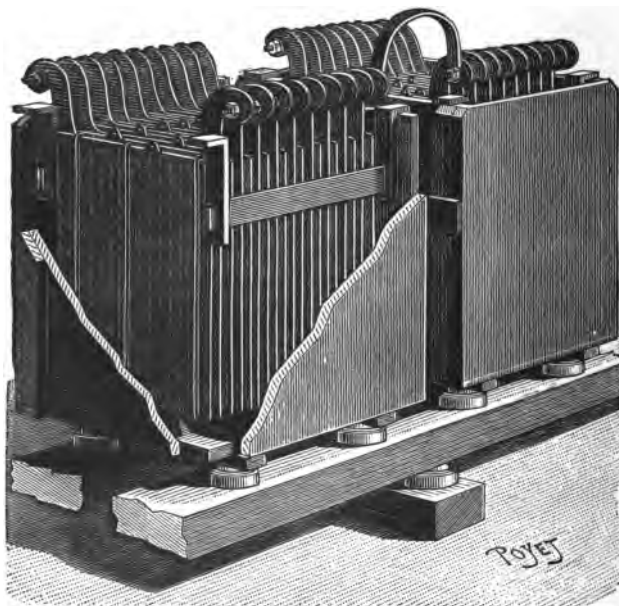
FIG. 32.—Cells of the Société du Travail Electrique des Métaux.

Accumulators of the Société du Travail Electrique des Métaux.—The plates of these accumulators appear divided into small squares (Fig. 32), in consequence of the peculiar method of their construction. A chloride paste is first

cut up into small blocks, which are placed in position, and molten lead is run round them so as to form plates. These plates are then heated by the ordinary Planté process, the chloride being first reduced to spongy lead for the negative plates, and then oxidised into peroxide for the positive plates. These accumulators have been used for traction in the Tramways-Nord of Paris; they have large capacity, and their efficiency is very high.

We may also mention, of the systems now in use, the Blot, Vernon, I. E. S., and other accumulators.

Management of accumulators, charging, discharging, etc. —The liquid for filling the cells must be distilled water, to which sulphuric acid is added until the specific gravity of the mixture is 1·190 when cold. The sulphuric acid must be free from impurities, such as arsenic, nitric, or hydrochloric acid. When the cells are fully charged the specific gravity should be from 1·20 to 1·22.

The acid solution should be put into the cells to a height of not less than half-an-inch above the tops of the plates, and the level should be kept constant either by adding pure water or weak acid until the specific gravity is that stated above.

Charging.—A constant current is not absolutely necessary for charging, but it should never exceed the value for which the cell is constructed by the makers. The charge is not complete until violent ebullition of the gases evolved has proceeded for some time. When this is the case, the potential difference between the terminals of charging cells ceases to rise, and each cell has a terminal voltage of 2·5 to 2·75 volts, according to the charging current.

Surcharge.—The battery should always be kept as fully charged as possible, and should as well be charged to a sufficient extent to cause the liquid to become milky at least once a week. If the battery has been out of regular use for some time it must be *surcharged* for about two or three hours more after it is apparently fully charged. It must be remembered that if the plates are in good working order, surcharging too frequently may become an abuse, and be actually harmful to the cells. It is best, if practicable, when the cells are to be out of work for some time, to leave the battery fully charged, and then to give it a short charging, say once a fortnight, till the acid turns milky, by which treatment the cells will be kept in order for any length of time.

Discharge.—The normal maximum rate of discharge should not be exceeded, and should never be continued after the specific gravity of the liquid has fallen below 1·17, or the terminal voltage of a cell below 1·8 volts, at the full rate of discharge. Under no circumstances whatever must these limits be exceeded.

Re-charging.—After each discharge, either partial or complete, the cells should be immediately fully re-charged, with the least possible delay. Not more than twenty-four hours at the outside should elapse between the end of the discharge and the beginning of the re-charging.

Disuse.—As stated above, if the battery is to be left out of work for any considerable time, the battery must be fully charged, and kept in this condition throughout the period of disuse. When starting them again, the cells should be first surcharged for two or three hours.

Towards the end of a charge, at the moment when ebullition begins, the attendant in charge of the cells must examine each cell carefully to see whether gas is being evolved equally from all the cells. If, during this necessary but simple inspection, any cell should be noticed which • has not reached the same stage as the others, or has not commenced ebullition at all, it is probable that such a cell has become internally short-circuited by pieces of paste or scale which have fallen down between the plates. These should be removed with a thin lath of clean wood, and the cell should be cut out of circuit during the discharge, by disconnecting one terminal of the cell, and connecting the two adjoining cells by means of a piece of cable large enough to carry the discharging current. The cell should be restored to its position when charging, and it will generally be found that one or two charges restore the cell to its proper condition.

These are the principal rules which *must* be rigidly observed in the maintenance of all accumulators. If carefully and methodically looked after, using only the smallest discharging current which is absolutely necessary, the accumulator will be found to be an efficient and economic piece of apparatus, whose utility in all well-equipped and really complete installations is beyond dispute.

As a regulator of pressure and reservoir of electricity, the accumulator is capable of rendering great service, and its value is proved by the ever-increasing use which is made of it in all electrical generating plants. Even the most modest of generating stations realise the necessity of including a battery of accumulators in their plant, as they

not only increase the output of the station, but also its efficiency and economy, as the following reasoning shows.

In everyday life light is required only for about six hours in winter and about four hours in summer, consequently in a generating station, during a greater part of the twenty-four hours, only a very few of the total number of lamps which the station supplies are alight, which it would be very wasteful to keep alight by means of a powerful engine and dynamo. This is where the advantage of accumulators comes in : they may be either charged during the day-time, at the same time supplying the few lamps alight, and then help the dynamo during the evening to cope with the heavy load which is thrown on the station at night-fall, or else they may be charged during the time of maximum load, by a dynamo large enough to supply current to the lighting circuit at the same time as charging the accumulators. By this last method the dynamo and engine are working efficiently under a heavy load for a few hours, while the rest of the time the engine is shut down, what little load there is being thrown on the accumulators.

This idea of using the accumulators for increasing the economy of electric installation is old, and numerous more or less successful systems have been devised with a view to this object. In small out-of-the-way stations, secondary cells are absolutely necessary, especially if, as is sometimes the case, the motive power is irregular or intermittent ; for example, water or wind power. In these cases the accumulator stores up the energy when available, from which it may be drawn when required at a totally different and constant pressure.

The only disadvantage to accumulators is their price, which is high, and forms a considerable portion of the capital outlay in stations reckoning the weight of their accumulator plates by tens of thousands of pounds.

In a large installation, the plant consists perhaps of a couple of engines and dynamos, and a battery of accumulators. The usual working conditions are as follows:— During the day the load on the station consists of a few lamps and perhaps motors making in all say 50 horse-power. At night this load becomes very much larger, and may rise to ten times the normal day load, meaning in this case five or six hundred horse-power. The whole demand might be met by engines and dynamos of 600 horse-power but this would leave them working inefficiently during the greater part of the twenty-four hours, so that it is better to have a somewhat smaller engine, charging accumulators during the day and supplemented by them during the evening, or a larger engine taking the whole of the evening load and charging the accumulators as well. During the day the engine would be at rest and all the current would come from the accumulators. In most cases, therefore, even when a constant and regular supply of water-power is available, accumulators form a natural part of a well-equipped station. They are to the electrical engineer what the gasometer is to the gas engineer, a reservoir which can always be drawn upon. This explains, from a commercial point of view, the great success which has attended them, since inventors applied themselves to making them really economic and practicable.

CHAPTER VII

DYNAMO ELECTRIC MACHINERY

As a whole volume of this series will be devoted to the study of dynamos, we will not go deeply into the subject, but confine ourselves to giving a brief account of the electro-magnetic principles on which they are designed and constructed. We will also describe the general features of the best-known types.

Historical.—Faraday noticed that every time a metallic wire was moved in a magnetic field, produced either by a current in another wire or otherwise, a current was produced in it whose effect was to resist the motion. This fact led him to enunciate the laws given in the third chapter of this volume. Ampère also showed, that the magnetic field produced by a permanent magnet could be artificially reproduced by employing a current flowing through a spiral of wire, and that the strength of the current induced in a wire moved in this field depended on the length of the wire, the rapidity with which it moved, and the strength and direction of the magnetic field. We therefore see by the above phenomena that the mechanical work expended

in moving a wire can be converted into electrical energy in it. These discoveries suggested the construction of magneto-electric machines, in which a wire should be continuously moved in a magnetic field by some mechanical contrivance so as to produce an electric current.

The principle of a mechanical generator of electricity is therefore simple. All that is necessary, is to cause a closed coil of insulated wire to rotate in front of a magnet. If this is done, a current is produced in the coil which flows first in one direction round it and then in the opposite direction. If such a dynamo were required to generate a current, always in the same direction, it must be provided with a ring split in two halves, rotating with the coil, and each half connected to one end of the coil. Against this ring rub two plates of metal or brushes one on each side, to which are attached two wires leading to the circuit in which the current is required.

The action of this *commutator* is as follows:—At the instant when the current in the coil is just reversing, each brush is passing from a position touching one half of the ring, to a position touching the other half, which its fellow has just left. The effect of this is that the external wires, mentioned above, are now connected to ends of the rotating coil opposite to those to which they were originally connected, so that the reversed current in the coil still flows in the same direction in the external part of the circuit as it did before. This direct current is obviously not continuous, but varies from a maximum to zero. If, however, this variation is rapid enough, the current becomes practically continuous.

The first machine built on this principle was constructed in 1832 by Pixii; it consisted of a movable magnet, spun rapidly in front of two fixed bobbins of insulated wire. Saxton and Clarke reversed the arrangement and spun the bobbins in front of the magnet. In 1849, Professor Nollet constructed a powerful magneto-electric machine, with large horse-shoe magnets, between the poles of which moved coils of copper wire furnished with iron cores. Masson and Van Malderen perfected this machine, and it was brought into practical use for lighting lighthouses by electricity.

The rotating coil is called the *armature*, and in 1856 Siemens devised a more perfect arrangement, in which the coils of insulated copper wire were wound lengthways along a spindle-shaped core. This armature, whose cross-section is something like an ⬱, and forms a powerful magnetic core, was rotated between the poles of a series of adjacent field magnets. The next improvement, due to Wilde, was the employment of the current generated by Siemens' machine to magnetise a powerful electro-magnet, which in its turn formed the poles of a second larger dynamo machine. In 1866 Siemens and Wheatstone independently suggested leaving out Wilde's small magneto machine, because the iron which constituted the poles of the second machine contained enough residuary magnetism to generate a small current in the armature, which current, being directed through the coils forming the electro-magnet, would increase its magnetism, thereby causing an increase of current in the armature, and so on. This process was found to continue until the iron of the

core of the electro-magnet, which is called the *field magnet*, becomes magnetically saturated, that is to say, incapable of further magnetisation.

This is practically the principle of the direct current dynamo as it stands to-day. The next greatest advance in the construction of dynamos, was the invention of the ring armature by Gramme, who patented it in 1870.

This armature consists of an iron ring-shaped core made of a bundle of annealed iron wires. Round the circumference of this coil are wound transversely the armature coils, each made of the same number of copper wires and insulated from one another. The end of one coil and the beginning of the next are connected to one of a number of metallic strips, laid round the circumference of a collar of insulating material, which is fixed to the shaft of the dynamo, the number of strips being the same as the number of coils, the whole forming the *commutator*. Such a ring armature may consist of 20, 40, 60, or more coils according to the size of the machine, and turns between the poles of powerful field magnets, which are made to fit as closely to the rotating armature as possible by means of pole pieces (Fig. 33). The current is collected from the commutator by means of *brushes* of copper gauze which rub on it, separated from one another by 180°, and connected to the terminals of the machine. These brushes are gripped by *brush-holders*, which in their turn are held in position by a light frame-work called a *rocker*, by means of which the brushes can be set in any required position round the axis of the commutator.

The generation of the current in a dynamo is governed by the laws of induction, and consequently the electro-

motive force induced in it depends on the strength of the magnetic field produced by the field magnets, on the number and size of the coils in the armature, and the speed with which it is rotated. The great advantage of the gramme ring over other previously known armatures was, that the current produced could be made as near as possible continuous by employing sufficient coils, and by giving a high speed of rotation. As stated above, an absolutely continuous current was impossible in the older types, as they were simply alternating current dynamos with their currents corrected.

We have therefore seen how the modern dynamo *excites* itself, that is to say, produces its own magnetic field, starting from the small remnant of magnetism which is always present in its iron field magnet. This small trace of magnetism is rapidly multiplied upon itself, until the machine is fully excited. For the best dynamos the power used up in producing the magnetic field does not exceed 2 or 3 % of the total output of power of the machine.

The brushes which rub on the commutator form a connection between the coils of the armature and the external circuit which consists partly of the field magnet coils, and partly of apparatus in which the current is being utilised, such as lamps, motors, electroplating baths, etc. The field-magnet windings may be connected to the circuit in three ways so as to form three distinct methods of excitation—

(1) Series dynamos.
(2) Shunt dynamos.
(3) Compound dynamos.

In *series* dynamos the current generated in the armature (Fig. 33) leaves the commutator by the brush P, and passes through one terminal of the machine to the outside circuit in which the current is utilised and returns to the other terminal, but before re-entering the commutator the whole current is first made to pass through the field-magnet coils. This type of machine is used for arc or incandescent lighting in series, in which the whole
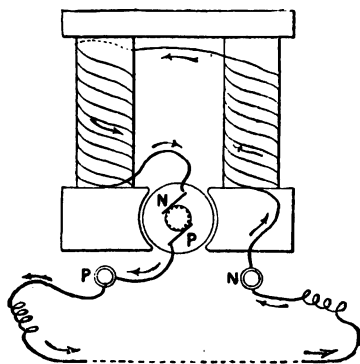
Fig. 33.—Series Dynamo (diagrammatic).

current passes through each lamp, and also for electrolysis and electroplating.

In the series dynamo, therefore, the whole current generated by the armature passes through the field-magnet coils. Instead of doing this the armature and external circuit might be connected in series, and the field-magnet coils be placed as a *shunt* across the terminals of the machine; only part of the whole current generated

by the armature would then pass through the field coils. This necessitates having a very large number of turns of wire on the fields in order to produce the same magnetising effect.

The combination of these two different ways of exciting form what is known as the compound dynamo, in which there are two sets of field-magnet coils, one of which consists of a large number of turns of wire through which only a portion of the current flows, forming the shunt coils, the other being connected in series with the armature and external circuit. By properly arranging the number of turns in the series and shunt coils it is possible to make this dynamo, if the speed of rotation is kept constant, generate a constant potential difference at its terminals, no matter what current is drawn from it, which is eminently suitable for electric lighting in parallel, in which each lamp must always have the same potential difference applied to it no matter how many lamps are alight. In the series or shunt dynamos this cannot be done, in consequence of complicated internal magnetic reactions between the armature and field magnets.

The commutator, in consequence of the rubbing of the brushes, wears away more or less rapidly. The numerous sections of which it is composed must, however, always be perfectly insulated from one another. The brushes are made so as to cover about one and a half sections of the commutator, so that as they pass under the brush, two of the sections are connected one to another by it, short circuiting for the moment the coil which is con-

nected between them. There are two positions on the commutator relative to the field magnets 180° apart between which there is a maximum potential difference, and at these two points the brushes should theoretically be
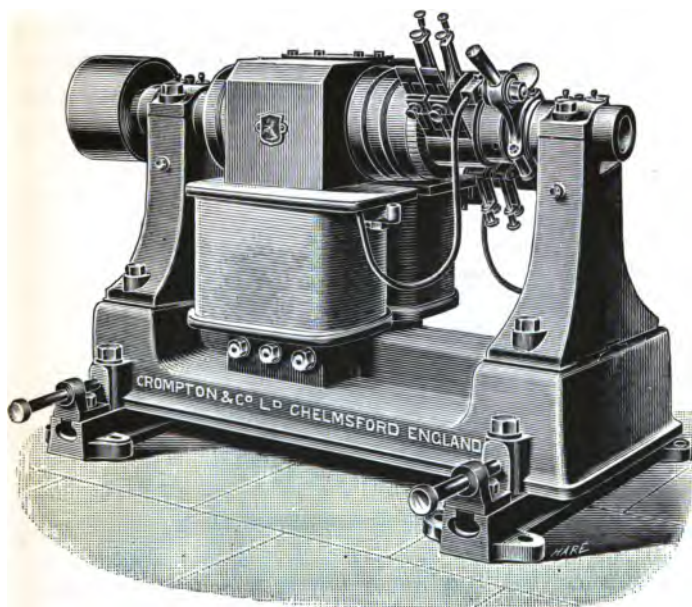
FIG. 34.—Crompton Dynamo.

placed. It is found in practice, however, that if placed there, destructive sparking occurs under the brushes which would soon ruin the commutator. In order to get rid of the sparking the brushes are given a slight forward lead in the direction of rotation of the armature. In practice

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the position of sparkless commutation is found experimentally by moving the brushes to and fro by means of the *rocker*.

Magneto machines in which the field magnets are permanent, and made of steel, are very little used except for generating small currents, such as for making call signals on telephones, etc. The shape of the dynamo field magnets and armatures is capable of great variety. A great deal
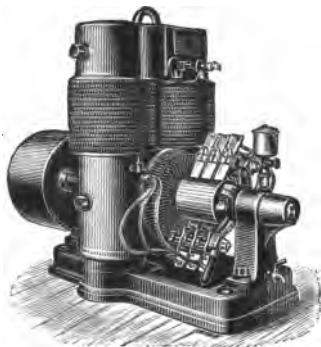
FIG. 85.—Castle Dynamo (Holmes and Co.).

depends on the conditions under which a dynamo is required to work; high E.M.F., large current, slow speed, constancy of current and voltage, being various points aimed at by different makers.

Of armatures four distinct types exist—

1. *Ring armatures.*—Gramme, Pacinotti, Schuckert, Brush, Brown, and other types.

2. *Drum armatures.*—Crompton, Siemens, Edison.

3. *Disc armatures.* — Ferranti - Thomson,   Dezrozier, Gülcher.

4. *Pole type of armature.*

To describe all the different types of dynamos would take up several volumes, but the subject has been very ably treated by Professor Silvanus Thomson in his *Dynamo Electric Machinery.* We will confine ourselves to mentioning a few of the best-known types, such as the Brush,
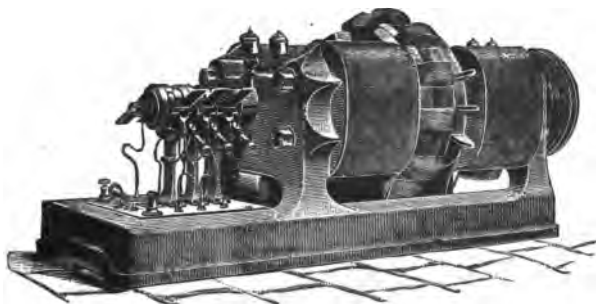
FIG. 36.—Brush Arc Light Machine.

Thomson-Houston, Hopkinson, Castle, Crompton, Kapp, Rechniewski, and Alioth and other dynamos. A great number of these dynamos are two-pole machines as in Figs. 34, 35, but another class exists with 4, 8, or 12 poles arranged round the armature. These are called multipolar machines, and are generally used where the output is large, as they mean considerable economy of cost and space.

Alternating current machines.—We have seen above, how a number of coils rotating in a magnetic field, pro-

duced by an electro-magnet, may generate an E.M.F. which is alternately in opposite directions in the coils. We have up till now only considered dynamos in which the currents due to this alternating electro-motive force have been rectified so as to produce a continuous direct current. Great practical use is now made, however, of
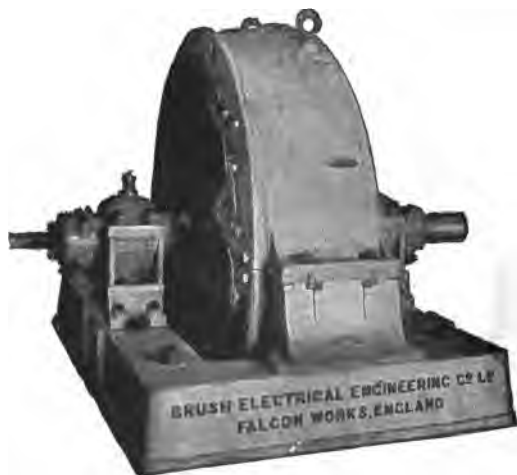
FIG. 37.—Brush Company's Alternator.

currents which have not been rectified by a commutator; such currents are called *alternating* currents, and the machine which generates them an *alternator*.

Alternators are not constructed in the same manner as dynamos, being as a rule excited by a small separate direct-current dynamo. The armatures are usually of the
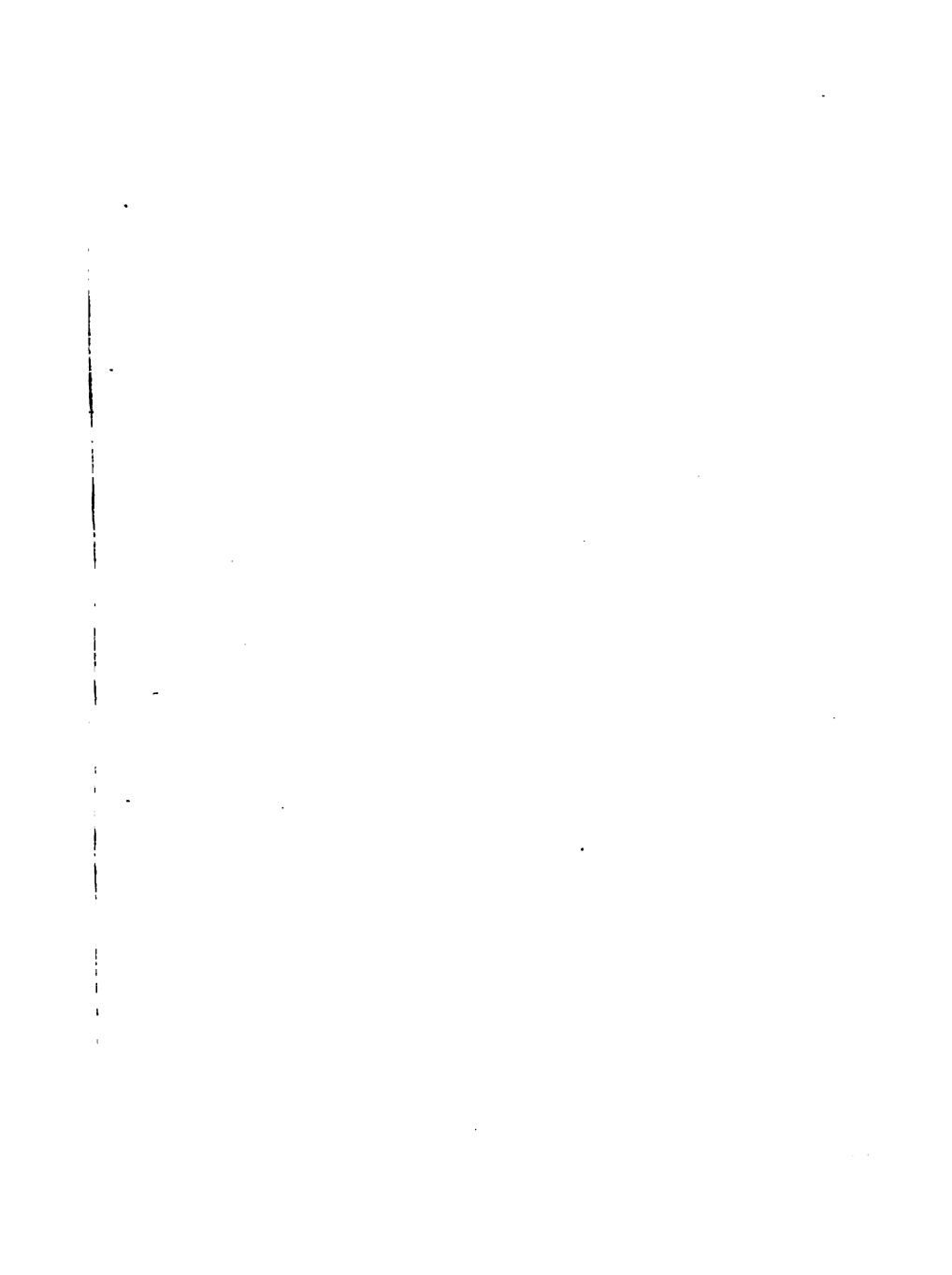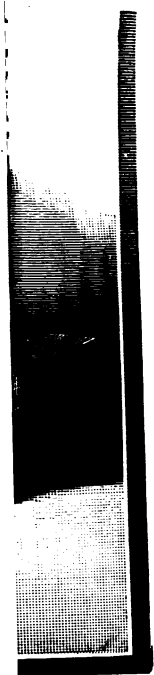
pole or disc type, and rarely of the drum or ring type. In some cases the armature in which the alternating E.M.F. is generated is fixed, whilst the field magnets in which a continuous current flows are made to revolve. The pole type of armature is in shape like a large ring with teeth round its circumference; the armature coils are wound round these teeth as cores. The field magnets form another ring which also has teeth projecting from it, but in this case internally. The number of teeth in the field magnets is usually the same as in the armature. The coils on the armature are wound in such a manner that two consecutive teeth or poles are of opposite sign, in order that all the electro-motive forces generated by the separate coils may be summed up in the same direction.

In those alternators which have disc armatures, the plane of each coil of the armature is parallel to the plane of the disc, and the lines of force of the electro-magnets are made to flow through it perpendicularly.

The electro-magnets require a continuous current to excite them, generated as a rule by a separate small dynamo which may be coupled to the alternator. In some cases the *exciter* is driven by a separate engine, and in others the alternator is made to excite itself by correcting a portion of the alternating current it generates, and sending it round the field magnets. In central stations the alternators are nearly always separately excited, as this method offers greater facilities of regulation of the pressure generated. Alternating currents being more easily distributed than continuous currents, have of recent years come greatly into favour. Some very

large alternators have been built, notably the 1500 H.P. Ferranti alternators at Deptford.

Polyphased currents.—An alternating current can be represented by a sinuous curve (Fig. 39), in which the ordinates represent current or electro-motive force and the abscissæ time. The curve A B C D E represents one complete *period*, during which the current or electro-motive force has, starting from zero at A, reached a maximum value at B, has again fallen to zero at C, and reaches a negative maximum at D before starting a fresh period at E. The *period* represented by A E is the time
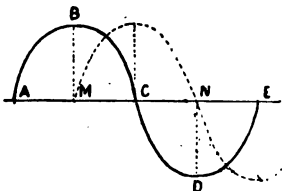
FIG. 39.—Curves of Diphase Currents.

taken to go through one complete cycle of current values. It is possible therefore to have two currents flowing in different wires, in such a manner that one of them completes its period a short time before the other. These two currents may be represented on the same axis as in the curves A C and M N (Fig. 39). Two such currents are said to be *out of phase,* and will only be *in phase* if they reach their maxima and minima at the same instant, although these maxima need not necessarily have the same value. The two currents need not either have the same periodic time, but we will not consider this

case as it does not occur in practice. If two alternating currents are out of phase, one of them is said to *lag* behind the other. The *frequency* is the number of complete periods per second.

It is possible to arrange the coils of an alternator so as to produce two alternating currents, one of which lags one quarter of a period behind the other. Such currents have been found useful for a particular form of alternating current motor, the diphase motor. Only three wires are necessary for the distribution of diphase currents, one of them being a wire common to the two circuits.

Triphase currents have also been successfully used, and in this case also only three wires are necessary, because of the peculiar fact that the sum of the three currents is always zero, and the three currents lag behind one another by one-third of a period. Polyphase motors, to which the success of these currents is due, were invented by Mr. Nikola Tesla, and the first industrial application of them was at the Frankfort exhibition in 1892, by Mr. Brown, then of the Oerlikon Works, Zurich. A three-phase alternator worked by a turbine driven by a waterfall on the Neckar at Lauffen, generated 1400 ampères at 150 volts, which current was transformed up to a higher potential and transmitted to Frankfort, a distance of 175 kilometres, where it was transformed down again, and used for various purposes.

The efficiency of the transmission was 52%. Since this pioneer installation, many cases of successful long-distance transmission have been recorded, perhaps the most sensational of which is the diverting of many thousands of

horse-power from Niagara Falls, driving turbines and diphase generators for supplying the city of Buffalo with energy. We feel safe in prophesying that the application of this class of currents to long-distance transmission has a very brilliant future before it.

CHAPTER VIII

ELECTRIC light was produced for the first time by Sir Humphrey Davy in 1800. He used for this purpose a powerful battery of 600 cells belonging to the Royal Society, forming a circuit with two pencils of wood charcoal, one end of each being immersed in mercury to make contact. When the two pencils of carbon were brought into contact for a moment and then separated, a brilliant light was emitted between the points, and on examining it by means of darkened glass it was found to be produced by a kind of electric flame which spread out between· the electrodes, and to it was given the name of the voltaic arc. The two carbons were found to burn away gradually, though not equally. Particles appeared to be torn from the positive electrode and deposited on the negative carbon, the positive carbon assuming a crater-like appearance. The first improvement was to make the electrodes of gas carbon (deposited in the retorts of gas works) instead of wood charcoal, and then to add a mechanism which should draw the carbons automatically

away to start the arc, and then keep them at the proper distance apart as they gradually burned away.

The first of such *regulators* was devised by Thomas Wright in 1845, but it was not until 1848 that public attention was drawn to the inventions of Haste and Petrie in England, and the physicist Foucault in France. Even then, further inventions by Dubosq, Archeran, Deleuil, and others failed to make lighting by arc lamps commercially practicable, except for lighthouses. This was mostly due to the very imperfect machines then obtainable for producing current, the Alliance machine, which was the best at that time, being but a very imperfect generator of electricity. It was, however, foreseen that if a good and efficient dynamo could be constructed, the arc lamp would be capable of very wide limits of application. When Gramme introduced his ring, most of these difficulties disappeared, and the practical application of the arc lamp to electric lighting may be said to date from this time. Since then hundreds of different mechanisms for regulating arc lamps have been devised; in principle however they always belong to one of three distinct types.

(1) Series regulating arc lamps.

(2) Shunt regulating arc lamps.

(3) Differential regulation, which is a combination of (1) and (2).

In the series arc lamp (Figs. 40, 41) the mechanism for regulation consists of a bobbin of wire with an iron core, the whole of the current passing through the lamp also passing through the coil of wire. The iron core being more or less strongly magnetised, regulates the distance at

which the carbons are held apart. This may either be
done by making the iron core to slide inside the coil, so
that it is drawn in or out as required by the carbons, or
the core may be fixed and attract an armature acting as a
brake on a clock-work mechanism. The carbons them-
selves are electrically connected to two terminals, which
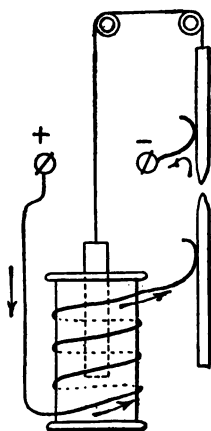
Fig. 40.   · Fig. 41.
Arc Lamps with Series Regulators (diagrammatic).
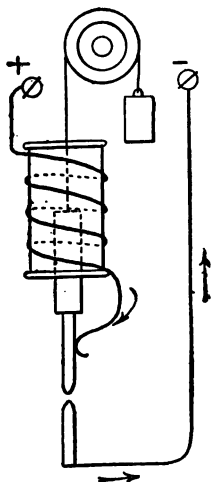
are sometimes at the top and sometimes at the bottom of
the lamp, according to the taste of the constructor. The
carbons are kept touching when the lamp is out by their
weight or by a spring, and when a current passes through
them, they are drawn apart and the arc established. This
arc offers more or less resistance to the passage of the
current, depending on its length, so that supposing the

arc gets too long, the change in the current through the regulator due to the change of the arc's resistance causes it to bring the carbons nearer together and to adjust the distance between their points to its proper value.

In some lamps the position of the arc in space is also kept fixed by suitable mechanism; this being absolutely necessary for lighthouses or lanterns in which the source of light must be kept at the focus of a mirror. Foucault's
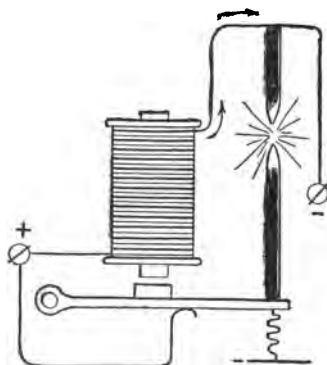
FIG. 42.—Arc Lamp with Shunt Regulator (diagrammatic).

original lamp was, so to speak, focussed by a clock-work mechanism, but in consequence of the trouble of winding them up they soon gave way to other automatic lamps.

In the shunt regulating lamp (Fig. 42) the regulating coil is placed as a shunt across the terminals of the lamp, and is made of a number of turns of fine wire, so that only a very small portion of the current through the lamp passes through it. It is obvious therefore that regulation

is only obtained when there is a change in potential difference between the lamp terminals. When the arc becomes too long, this potential difference increases, and consequently more current passes through the shunt regulator, causing it to react on the lamp mechanism and shorten the arc until the pressure has fallen to its normal value.

This regulator cannot be used if a constant potential difference is supplied to the lamp, as in that case the regulator ceases to act. Nor can the series regulator be used if a constant current is supplied to the circuit in which it is placed, for a similar reason.

We therefore see that the series regulator is best adapted for lighting on the parallel system, in which a constant potential difference is supplied to each lamp, and the shunt regulator for series lighting, where there is one circuit with a constant current flowing through it. It is found, however, in practice that it is impossible to supply either an absolutely constant potential or an absolutely constant current. For this reason *differential regulators* have been devised, with both shunt and series regulating coils, which determine by their mutual action the distance which the carbons shall be kept apart. Fig. 43 shows diagrammatically the arrangement of such a regulator. The series coil through which the whole current passes tends to continually lengthen the arc, and is made of comparatively few turns of thick wire, while the shunt coil, which tends to shorten the arc, is made of a large number of turns of fine wire. Equilibrium is established by the opposing effects of these two coils, and

this type of regulator may be used for either series or parallel lighting, and, being very sensitive, gives an exceedingly steady light. Siemens first used this form of regulator, and numerous lamps based on this principle have been brought out since the electrical exhibition of 1881,
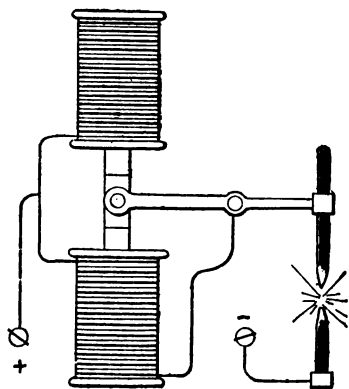
FIG. 43.
Arc Lamp with Both Shunt and Series Regulation.

FIG. 44.
Brockie-Pell Arc Lamp.

such as the Brockie-Pell (Fig. 44), Bardon (Fig. 46), and others.

The electric arc requires at least 35 volts to keep it going, and generally requires from 40 to 50 in its practical form. It is also found that an arc cannot be maintained in a circuit in which there is no resistance

besides that of the arc itself. An extra resistance of some sort is required, which in the parallel 110 volt system of lighting is supplied by placing a pair of arc lamps in series across the mains, each lamp absorbing about 55 volts, 40 for the arc itself and 15 or so for the regulator, etc. Lamps have been constructed which will produce an arc taking only 3 ampères, but 7 or 8 ampères is the usual quantity necessary to give a good light.

Arc lamps can be lighted in series, or parallel, or a combination of the two. In the first case they are grouped in a row forming one single circuit. The E.M.F. generated by the dynamo supplying them with current must be sufficient to overcome the resistance of each separate lamp, as well as that of the conductors joining them, which is about 2 per cent. of the whole. The dynamo must therefore generate current at a high pressure; this disadvantage is made up for by the small total current and the small cross-section of conductor required to carry it, which means considerably less outlay in copper. The great disadvantage of this method of lighting, is that unless the dynamo is constructed to produce a constant current, the lights must all be switched out together, or if a single lamp is switched out it must be replaced by a resistance about equal to its own. This would mean a great loss of energy in heating these useless resistances, and so dynamos have been specially designed to produce a constant current independently of the resistance in circuit, the best known being the Thomson-Houston and Brush (Fig. 36) arc light machines. This system is very much used in America.

Fig. 45.—Cance Arc Lamp.   Fig. 46.—Burden Arc Lamp.

When arc lamps are connected in parallel, they are each connected across two *mains* or wires, which come direct

from the dynamo. The difference of potential of the terminals of the dynamo is kept constant and equal to that required for one arc lamp, or two if a couple are placed in series. The whole current generated by the dynamo is equal to the sum of the currents passing through the lamps, and is consequently large. The mains must be made of such a size that there is no appreciable difference in the difference of potential of the terminals of the separate lamps, due to the resistance of the mains. Although the parallel system of lighting is more expensive, as far as copper conductors are concerned, than the series system, it is safer, as there are no high pressures, and each lamp is besides rendered perfectly independent of the others. The system of mixed series and parallel arc lighting is the one generally in use in England. Sets of two lamps in series, being placed across mains kept at a constant pressure of 110 volts.

Incandescent lighting.—A crude incandescent lamp was invented by Edison in 1878, and was afterwards perfected by him and Swan, and although it has been much improved in detail of construction, it is practically the same to look at to-day as it was then. The actual lamp itself consists of an exhausted glass globe containing a carbon filament with platinum tips, which pass hermetically through the sides of the bulb. The platinum tips are usually passed through a short brass tube, cemented to the glass by filling it with plaster of Paris. The platinum wires pass through the plaster, and are soldered to brass contacts imbedded in it. This device is to prevent the platinum wires, where they emerge from the glass, from

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being broken off, which would render the lamp useless. On opposite sides of the brass tube are two small brass pins which slip into slots in the *lampholder*, and thus form an easy method of detaching and renewing lamps. There are two small spring blocks inside the lampholder, connected to the source of the current, which press against the contact blocks in the plaster of Paris, thus completing the electrical connection. The lamp itself is often covered with a shade of coloured material, and sometimes the glass of the bulb itself is ground or coloured to increase artistic effect. The equipment of each lamp is completed by a *switch* and a *cut-out*.

The first of these two is for turning the lamp on or off, by breaking the circuit of the filament. The best-known form in this country is perhaps the *tumbler* type.

The *cut-out* is a device for securing greater safety from overheating of the wires leading to the lamp, which might lead to a destructive fire. It consists essentially of a thin piece of wire made of fusible alloy, intercalated in the lamp circuit. It is made of such thickness, that if the current in the circuit becomes too dangerously large, due, say, to a short circuit, this fusible wire or *fuse* is melted, and the circuit is broken. The fuses are always placed as near as possible to the junction of the lamp wires with the main wires. It is of course inconvenient to be suddenly plunged into darkness by a fuse *blowing*, but this inconvenience is not to be compared with the risk of the fire which might occur if cut-outs were not used. Each lamp is provided with a small fuse and each group of lamps with a larger fuse, and finally each consumer connected to

an electric supply company's mains has a *main cut-out* placed at the point where his circuit joins on to the company's system.

Several standard methods exist of connecting up the lamps in wiring a house, depending on convenience and on their distance from the source of electricity. For incandescent lighting *parallel* wiring is the best.

The ordinary voltages at which current is supplied by the electric lighting companies are 110 or 220 volts. The greater the voltage, the less the current used to light each lamp, and consequently the same mains as were used for a 110 volt supply a short time ago now supply a much larger number at 220 volts, with increased economy. The ordinary 16-candle-power lamp consumes about 50 to 60 watts.

As an example take a small private installation of fifty lamps at 110 volts. These lamps would require a total current of 25 ampères, necessitating main conductors of considerable cross-section. If now the system were changed to 220 volts, each lamp would only require a quarter of an ampère, the total current would be 12½ ampères, and the main conductor could be reduced to about half its former cross-section, and therefore to a quarter of its previous diameter, with the same efficiency of distribution.

It is necessary when arranging an installation to see that those lamps which are furthest from the source of electricity shall be properly illuminated. If the conducting wires are made too thin there will be a considerable loss of potential between the source and the furthest lamp

from it, due to their resistance. This would cause this furthest lamp to burn less brightly than a lamp attached nearer to the source; for this reason the fall of potential to the furthest lamp must not exceed 2½ per cent., and the conductors must be made of such a cross-section that this condition is fulfilled. Arc lamps may be also connected two in series across the conductors of a 110 volt system. With current at 110 volts, 50 incandescent and 10 arc lamps require about 75 ampères. It might be more economical to have separate circuits for the different kinds of lamps, or to group them differently, so as to work at a higher pressure, but public lighting in England by con-tinuous currents is practically restricted by Government regulations and practical considerations to the·110 or 220 volt system.

Different methods of distribution of current for lighting.— Arc and incandescent lamps can be worked with alternat-ing currents, either simple or polyphased, as well as continuous currents, and these three systems of distribution require, each of them, special methods.

As far as continuous currents are concerned, practically only two methods are in use; the parallel system at con-stant potential, and the series system at constant current. The first of these solutions of the problem was proposed in 1880 by Cabanellas, and consists of arranging the lamps so as to form one single continuous circuit, and to main-tain a constant current flowing through it by varying the electro-motive force in it in proportion to its resistance (Fig. 47). This result can be obtained by using a constant current machine such as the Thomson-Houston, or by

altering the lead of the brushes, or the speed of rotation of the generator.

On the other hand, for parallel lighting it is the voltage . of the dynamo which must be kept constant, and the
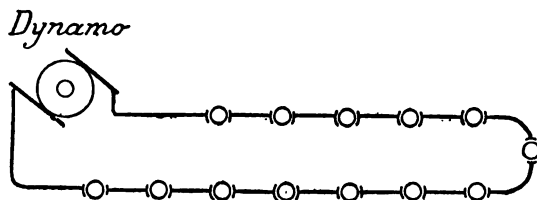
FIG. 47.—Series Method of Distribution.

current must be proportional to the number of lamps alight. This system of distribution has given rise to several modifications, which are necessary if the point of utilisation of the current is at a considerable distance from
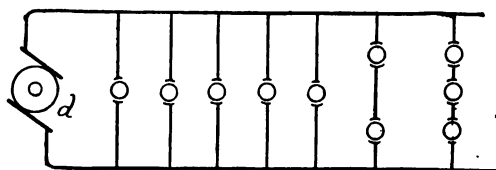
FIG. 48.—Parallel Method of Distribution.

the central generating station. We will discuss these various methods separately.

Firstly we have the simple parallel distribution (Fig. 48), in which two wires starting from the generating station switch-board are laid side by side. At any point these two

mains may be connected together through a lamp, all the lamps being thus connected in parallel. The same generator might supply several such circuits, each connected to its terminals. This parallel system is only possible when the distance to the furthest lamps is less than a quarter of a mile, otherwise these lamps would only have an insufficient difference of potential supplied to them, due to the fall of potential caused by the resistance of the mains. The loop arrangement in Fig. 49 obviates this difficulty to a certain extent. It will be seen how the effects of the resistances of the two mains are made to counterbalance
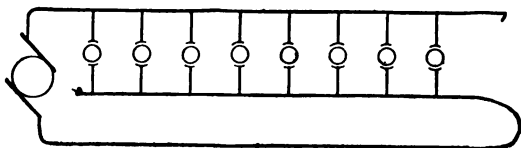
Fig. 49.—Loop Method for Parallel Distribution.

one another, so that length of the circuit of every lamp considered separately is the same. This device, however, requires a much longer conductor, and can only be used under certain circumstances. The third arrangement in Fig. 50 is also a modification of the parallel system.

Two heavy mains called *feeders* start from the central station and form at a *sub-station* a secondary centre from which the ordinary parallel network starts. Several such pairs of feeders may be connected on to the same network, so as to maintain the same potential difference throughout it. Fig. 50 shows two pairs of feeders supplying different networks of lamps in parallel.

The three-wire system of distribution (Fig. 51) was invented by Dr. John Hopkinson, and affords a very much greater economy of copper conductors than any of the
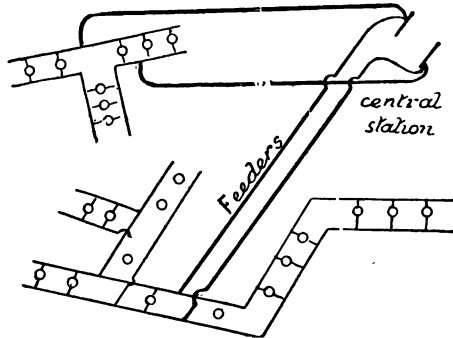
FIG. 50.—Parallel Distribution with Feeders.

other systems yet discussed. The lamps are grouped two in series, at the same time remaining independent of one another. There are three main conductors forming two
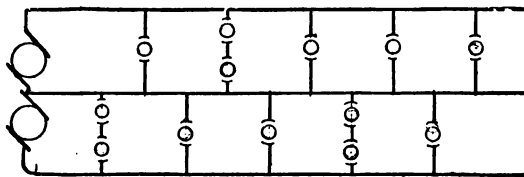
FIG. 51.—Three-wire System.

circuits, supplied by two dynamos connected in series. Between the outer conductors the difference of potential is 220 volts, each dynamo generating 110, while the third

conductor is connected to the common terminal of the machines. If there are the same number of lamps alight in each circuit, the current entering one dynamo by the middle conductor will be equal to that leaving the other. Consequently no current flows along it. This wire is therefore called the *neutral wire*. The distribution therefore reduces itself to a 220 volt system, with consequently great economy of copper as we have explained above.

The five-wire system (Fig. 52) is an extension of the
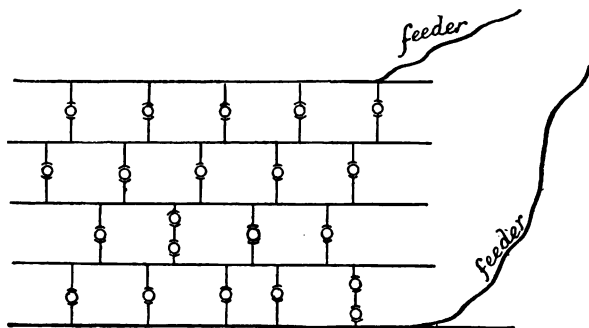
FIG. 52.—Five-wire System.

three-wire system, there being four different steps of 110, 220, 330, and 440 volts, divided between four independent circuits. This system has been successfully worked in Paris and at Manchester. The regulation and maintenance of the equality of potential between the various conductors, is effected by a combination of dynamos and accumulators. The three middle wires are neutral wires, and the extreme difference of potential, namely 440 volts, may be used directly for motors and tramways.

CHAPTER IX

THE future of electricity undoubtedly resides in the judicious utilisation of natural sources of power which, being harnessed, shall transmit their power, converted into electricity, to points where it may be more conveniently utilised. Nor is this utilisation of Nature's waste forces only confined to the future, for within the past few years, thanks to the inventive genius of electrical and mechanical engineers, numerous waterfalls, large and small, have become their willing and obedient slaves. It is evident that electricity, cheaply produced by these means, has a very great future before it, its power of application being almost infinite. Up till comparatively recent times, it was thought that continuous currents only were adapted for long-distance transmission and re-transformation into mechanical power, but the invention of alternate current motors, both simple and polyphased, has completely altered the complexion of the matter, and has made alternating currents peculiarly adaptable for such treatment. We will first, however, consider the direct-current motor.

The first attempt to construct an electric motor dates from the year 1830, and was made by Jacobi, who also invented electroplate. His motor consisted of a star-shaped armature, revolving between the poles of two rows of horse-shoe electro-magnets, which attracted each arm of the armature as it approached them. The currents entered the motor by a commutator, keyed to the shaft, which caused the magnets to attract or repel the armature poles at the right moment. This motor was used to drive an electric boat, but in spite of the fact that 120 Grove cells were used in working it, it failed to generate any but a very small power. For many long years this method of obtaining rotation by the alternate attraction and repulsion of electro-magnets was the only one known, and many motors were invented on this principle, but they remained mere toys.

When Siemens brought out his ⊥ armature, it was substituted in motors for the older type. Such electro-motors were designed by Marcel Deprez, Trouvé and others, and were driven by primary batteries. They received very little application in practice because of their small efficiency and the very great cost of generating current by means of primary batteries, and so their only achievement was propelling small pleasure-boats.

At last Gramme invented his ring armature, which made electricity commercially practicable, and some unknown person having shown that the dynamo was reversible, that is to say could generate electricity by being supplied with power or generate power by being supplied with electricity, continuous-current motors soon came to the fore. The

first experiment on transmission of power was made in 1873 at Vienna, by M. Hippolyte Fontaine, with a Gramme dynamo, and in 1879 a dynamo was to be seen in a sugar manufactory at Sermaize in France, driven by a steam-engine and supplying current to several motors, and stationed at some distance from it, performing various operations. In 1886 M. Marcel Deprez attempted a trans-mission of power over a distance of 56 kilometres between Creil and La Chapelle, a distance which at that time was considered enormous. In order to avoid as much as possible the great expense of conductors, Deprez designed a unique dynamo of 120 horse-power, generating from 7 to 10 ampères at 6300 volts. At the receiving end, over 30 miles distant, 54 horse-power were effectively drawn from the motor shaft, the efficiency of transmission being thus 43 per cent. M. Fontaine showed soon afterwards that such a costly dynamo at the generating end was not necessary. He joined four Gramme dynamos of the ordin-ary type in series, generating altogether 9 ampères at 5896 volts. Instead of actually transmitting this power to a distance, he made use of the less costly expedient of using an artificial line of 100 ohms. The current was then utilised by three motors, and an efficiency of 52 per cent. for the transmission was obtained.

These experiments clearly showed how adapted the elec-tric current was, for transmitting power over long or short distances, and since then it has been applied in countless instances in factories and works for driving machinery of every description by electric motors.

No form of energy is so readily subdivided as electricity,

supplied with an alternating current it would not act as a motor, unless it already had such a speed, that when working as a generator at that speed, the frequency of the alternating electro-motive force it would produce was the same as the frequency of the current with which it was supplied as a motor. Supposing, for instance, that when working as a generator at a certain speed, the frequency of the current produced was 50 cycles per second. Then if supplied as a motor with an alternating current of 50 cycles per second it will run at that same speed and at that speed only. Such a motor is said to be *synchronous*, because its speed must always bear a certain relation to the frequency of the current supplied to it. If the motor is loaded so as to do work, and if that load is more than a certain amount, the motor slows down a little, and this relation no longer holding it stops short. It is therefore necessary to have some automatic means of cutting such a motor out of circuit should the load upon it become too great.

Alternating motors are nothing else but electro-dynamometers in which the torsion couple or *torque* on the armature is always in the same direction, independently of the direction of the current flowing through the motor; the armature and field magnets corresponding to the movable and fixed coils of the dynamometer. Unless they are very carefully constructed, it is found that a great waste of energy is caused by eddy or Foucault currents, generated in the iron cores by the continuously changing fields of force in them, and this factor if not properly considered may cause a great loss of efficiency in the

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These alternating motors are nothing else but electro-dynamometers, in which the torsion couple or *torque* on the needle is always in the same direction, independently of the direction of the current flowing through the motor; the coils and field magnets corresponding to the fixed coils of the dynamometer. Unless they are carefully constructed, it is found that a great difficulty is caused by eddy or Foucault currents, set up in the iron cores by the continuously changing force in them, and this factor if not properly allowed for may cause a great loss of efficiency in the

Frankfort exhibition, a distance of 175 kilometres. A similar installation is working successfully at Cassel in Germany, but the distance of transmission is only 6 kilo-
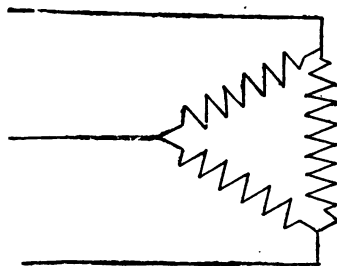
FIG. 53.—Triangular Winding.

metres. A Kapp alternator stationed at Neuemühle on the Fulda generates an alternating current which is sent to Cassel, through concentric mains, and enters a synchron-
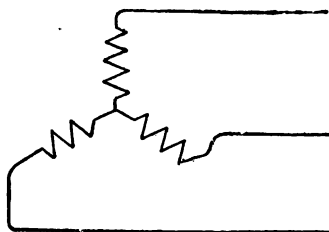
FIG. 54.—Star Winding.

ous motor coupled to two continuous-current dynamos. These dynamos supply the current to the lighting of the town on the three-wire system, and also charge a battery

of accumulators, so as always to be working efficiently at full load.

Transformers.—The transformer, as its name indicates, is a piece of apparatus used for raising or lowering the pressure of an alternating current with corresponding decrease or increase of that current. They are of great practical use in transmitting power to a distance, as the copper used for the conductors conveying the current is by their help considerably reduced in weight and therefore cost. It would be possible of course to dispense with them, by using machines generating current at high pressure, but such generators are very expensive, and exceedingly dangerous to work. A high-pressure current is besides totally unsuited for being directly converted back again into mechanical energy. Transformers are therefore doubly useful in transforming low-pressure currents to a high pressure at the generating station, and re-converting to the low-pressure current which can be more easily manipulated.

The power of a torrent or waterfall of a river can be absorbed by a turbine driving an alternator generating a large current at a low potential. This current is sent into a suitable *step-up* transformer, which raises its pressure and reduces the current, at the same time keeping the total power of the current constant. This small high-pressure current is then transmitted by a thin line conductor to the receiving station, where *step-down* transformers reduce it to a more easily manipulated form. Both step-up and step-down transformers are constructed on the same principle, namely, that of the induction coil. They con-

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sist of an iron core, on which are wound two circuits,

FIG. 55.—Mordey Victoria Transformer.

which mutually react on one another by induction. One
coil is made of a few turns of thick wire, and the other

of a larger number of turns of fine wire, according to the *ratio* of transformation required. If a low-pressure alternating current is sent through the thick coil, a high-pressure alternating current is induced in the thin coil, and conversely a high-pressure current in the thin coil will induce a low-pressure current in the thick coil.

The inducing and induced currents are called the *primary* and *secondary* currents and flow in the *primary* and *secondary* coils respectively, and the ratio of the pressure of the primary and secondary currents is equal to the ratio of the number of turns of wire in the primary and secondary coils. The *efficiency* of a transformer is measured by the ratio of the power taken out of the secondary coil, to the power put into the primary, and may be as high as 96 per cent., although not generally more than 90 per cent. This high efficiency is only obtained if the transformer is fully loaded, that is, carrying as much current as possible without overheating. If the transformer is only partially loaded the efficiency of transformation is not so good, and engineers attempt to so arrange their circuits that the transformers are always working at maximum load, and therefore maximum efficiency.

The transformer was not invented by any particular individual, but may be said to date from Faraday's and Henry's researches in electro-magnetic induction. Since then it has gradually developed, and to-day it is one of the most useful and certain appliances to be found in alternate current installations.

CHAPTER X

IF an electric current is passed through water containing a chemical salt in solution it is found that this salt is decomposed, portions of it being liberated at the point where the current enters the solution and other portions where it leaves it. This phenomenon is called *electrolysis*, and the liquid solution through which the current passes is called the *electrolyte*. The points where the current enters and leaves the solution are called *poles;* the former is the positive pole or *anode* and the latter the negative pole or *cathode.*

All such chemical decomposition only occurs when there is a corresponding expenditure of energy. This energy may be supplied by heat, or by the energy of the current if the bodies are decomposed electrically, but in all cases the deposition or decomposition is a consequence of law of conservation of energy. Faraday discovered the quantitative laws governing electrolysis or electro-chemical deposition.

It has been possible by studying the amounts of different

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bodies deposited by the same quantity of electricity, to form, by Faraday's laws, a table of relative electro-chemical equivalents, such an equivalent being the amount of a body deposited by one ampère flowing for one second, that is to say, one coulomb of electricity. One coulomb liberates 0·010384 milligramme of hydrogen; if we multiply this number by the chemical equivalent of any other body, we obtain its electro-chemical equivalent, the chemical equivalent of hydrogen being unity.

The first process to which the discovery of electrolysis was applied, was that of electroplating, which consists of covering an object with a layer of metal of any sort, and the reproduction of objects, such as medallions, by deposit-ing metal on plaster-casts taken from them. This process was invented by Jacobi, professor at the University of Dorpat, who made his first experiments in 1838. His discovery of soluble electric anodes was a starting-point for the simple commercial operation of electroplating, which is to-day so well known.

The most important part in reproducing objects, which process is called electrotyping, is taking a cast of the object to be reproduced. The earliest substance used for this purpose was plaster of Paris, but as it is porous it must be first rendered impervious, which slightly lengthens the operations. The plaster must be very fine and only mixed with a small quantity of water, and the object must first be oiled before pouring it on, so that when it has set hard and dry, it comes off quite easily with the impression on it. The cast is immersed in a very hot bath of stearine to make it impervious, and its surface is then rubbed with black-lead

or graphite with a little brush, to make it a conductor of electricity. For very delicate work, such as casts of flowers, fruit, insects, etc., the surface may be made conducting by the chemical process of painting it with silver nitrate, which is dried on it and exposed to the action of hydro-sulphuric acid : this process is repeated until a sufficient layer of conducting material has been obtained. The sulphide of silver which is formed is a very good conductor of electricity. In order to prevent metal being deposited

Fig. 56.—Plaster-cast for Electrotyping.

anywhere except on the required part, the sides and back are covered with melted sealing-wax, or some other non-conducting material. This somewhat crude method of plating has been much modified and improved by numerous inventors.

Nowadays impressions are taken with wax, gutta-percha, marine glue, gelatine, and fusible alloys, which allow very great delicacy in the reproduction of detail to be obtained. An exact facsimile of a small object such as a cameo, or medal, can be obtained without any plaster-cast by simply

surrounding it with a copper wire, and placing it in an electroplating bath.

Certain precautions must be taken in order to obtain a regular and non-granular deposit : the strength of the current must not be too great, for in that case metallic crystals might be formed completely obliterating the true shape of the object. If the current is too great the deposit does not adhere properly, but flakes off when touched, especially if the impression is a bold one. About 2·5 ampères per square decimetre of surface of the object is found in practice to give the best results.

Apparatus necessary for electrolysis and electroplating.— If it is required to deposit metal on, or to plate large surfaces of more than a yard square, it is absolutely essential from an economic point of view, that the current should be generated by a dynamo driven by an engine of some sort. The electro-motive force necessary to drive the current through the depositing baths is never very great, and so special dynamos must be constructed generating a large current at very low pressure. Machines of this type have been designed by Gramme, Bréguet, Edison, Sautter, Harlé, Thomson-Houston, and others. Some of these are compound dynamos, wound in this manner in order to prevent the polarity of the dynamos being reversed, by accidentally allowing the E.M.F. of the baths to rise higher than that of the dynamo, but generally they are simple series machines. It is, however, better to be on the safe side and insert in the circuit some form of automatic circuit-breaker, which only allows the current to flow in one direction, and breaks the circuit if by any chance the

E.M.F. of the dynamo falls below that of the electrolytic baths. It is also as well to place the dynamo as near to the baths as possible, for with such a big current, even a few yards of conductor large enough to carry it come very expensive.

If it is a question of surfaces of only 3 or 4 square feet or less, on which metal is to be deposited, the engine and dynamo may be dispensed with, and primary cells used to generate the current. Using copper sulphate cells of
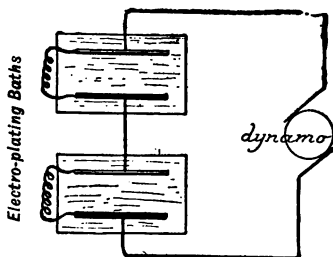
Fig. 57.—Baths in Series.   Fig. 58.—Baths in Parallel.

the Daniell type, these would not be likely to give more than 2 ampères of current at a pressure of 1 volt, or about 2 watts; 48 cells would therefore be necessary for nickel-plating 3 square feet of surface, requiring 25 ampères and about 4 volts. Such a number of cells could not be manipulated with sufficient ease; it is therefore better to use large Bunsen cells with nitric and sulphuric acid, each of which will give 12 ampères at 1·8 volts, or about 21·5 watts.

With a battery of six of these cells placed in two sets

of three in series, the same output may be obtained as from the 48 smaller copper sulphate elements.

Bunsen cells have been objected to on account of the nitrous fumes which they evolve when working, and which necessitates them being placed out of doors, or in a draught cupboard, but the defect may be easily and almost completely eradicated by adding a small quantity of chromic acid to the nitric acid in the porous pot, and by placing a lid of ebonite over its mouth. The suffocating fumes may be thus avoided with a very small extra expenditure.

Bichromate cells might also be used in the shape described in a previous chapter, but it must be remembered that this system is very expensive. To plate a surface, would necessitate a relative expenditure of 1s. 6d., using Bunsen cells, 3s. with copper sulphate cells, and only about 1d. or 2d. using a dynamo driven by a gas or petroleum motor. This comparison speaks for itself, and only too clearly points out the immense advantage of generating the current mechanically. Accumulators come in very handy when used in conjunction with a dynamo and engine or turbine. They may be charged at times when the motive power is available, and discharged when it might not be convenient to use it. They may also be arranged so as to light at the same time the buildings in which the plating is performed.

Having considered the question of the most suitable method of generating the current, we will pass on to the details of baths, polishing apparatus, and other accessories. The best material for the baths themselves is glass, but

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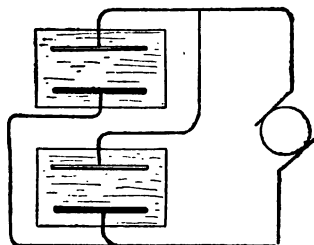
Electro-plating Baths
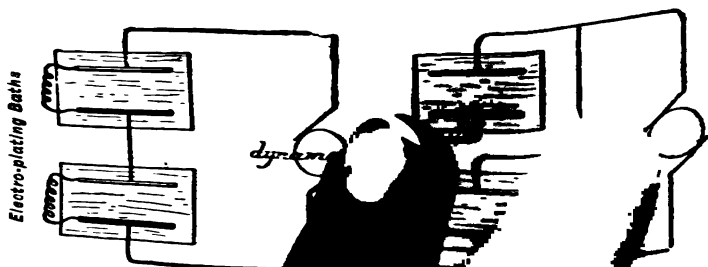
Fig. 57.—Baths in Seri

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is finally washed in pure water before being placed in the electroplating bath.

Iron, steel, or zinc, instead of in solutions (1) and (2), should be washed in dilute sulphuric acid with a little nitric and hydrochloric acid added, after which they should be washed in water, and then polished with emery and powdered pumice-stone and immediately immersed in a bath—

| Hydrochloric acid | ... | ... | 1 part by volume |
| Water   ...   ... | ... | ... | 3 parts   „ |

Iron or steel articles must be immediately placed in the plating bath in order to prevent a coating of oxide from being formed by the contact of the air. It is possible to plate their surface by directly depositing any metal upon it, but it is found that such plate becomes easily detached, especially if the layer is a thin one. For this reason it is best first of all to deposit a thin layer of copper on the surface, which makes the final plating adhere firmly.

The following are two copper-plating formulæ recommended by the best authorities—

		Cold bath.	Hot bath.
Bisulphite of soda	...	500 grammes	200 grammes
Potassium cyanide	...	500 „	700 „
Carbonate of soda	...	1000 „	500 „
Copper acetate ...	...	475 „	500 „
Ammonia ...	...	350 „	300 „
Water	...	25 litres	25 litres

or—

Copper acetate ...	...	...	500 grammes
Carbonate of soda	...	...	500 ,,
Potassium cyanide	...	...	750 ,,
Water	...	...	15 litres
Sodium sulphite	...	...	500 grammes

This last bath may be used either hot or cold. Gauduin's formula contains a double oxalate of sodium and copper, and a large excess of oxalic acid, while Cadiat replaces the sodium by ammonium, which allows of the mixture being used cold in wooden vessels.

The mixing of the various ingredients of the electrolyte is proceeded with as follows:—The acetate is dissolved in 5 litres of water and the ammonia and other compounds separately in 10 or 20 litres. These two solutions are mixed together and should produce a slight discolouration. If, however, there is no change in colour, cyanide must be added until it is produced. It is found that baths which have been in use some time work better than when freshly mixed, and when the electrolyte has become exhausted it can easily be brought back to working condition by the addition of equal quantities of acetate and cyanide. The deposit may be considerably hastened by stirring the electrolyte, or keeping the electrodes moving.

Gold and silver plating.—The surface of copper or bronze articles, which are to be gold or silver plated, may be freed from grease by heating to a dull red heat, but if there are soldered joints in them which might come undone during the process, the articles must be cleaned by the boiling in caustic soda or potash. They must then be further cleaned by a bath of 10 per cent. solution of sulphuric acid until

the surface is a dull red colour. Then they must be washed in water and dipped into nitric acid which has been weakened by use. They are further placed in a bath of stronger nitric acid to which are added sea salt and soot in the proportion of 1 kilogramme of nitric acid to 200 grammes of each of the other constituents. The metal is then taken from this bath and dipped into a similar one, containing in addition sulphuric acid. The surface is finished off by immersing for a few moments in a bath of mercuric nitrate and sulphuric acid, and washing in clean water.

Iron, steel, and zinc after having the grease removed by potash are cleaned in a 1 per cent. solution of sulphuric or hydrochloric acid.

Silver is freed from grease by heating, and the surface cleaned by baths of sulphuric acid and nitric acid, and then polished with a rotating brush of stiff brass wire, worked by hand or with a treadle.

The composition of the electrolyte for gold plating depends on whether the bath is heated or not. For the cold process, a compound of gold and ammonia is dissolved together with cyanide of potassium. The soluble anode is formed by a simple sheet of gold. If heat is used, a platinum anode is best, and the electrolyte then consists of

Chloride of gold	...	...	...	1 part
Potassium cyanide	...	...	...	10 parts
Water ...	...	...	...	100 „

Saturated solution of potassium cyanide 100 parts, is added when the first three have been mixed and filtered. The

solution should be used at a temperature of 130° to 150° Fahrenheit.

The best solution for silver is found to be that of silver cyanide, kept in solution by potassium cyanide. The current decomposes this mixture and silver is deposited on the cathode, and the cyanogen liberated at the silver anode combines with it, forming more silver cyanide which maintains the strength of the electrolyte.

The anodes are sheets of silver completely immersed in the electrolyte. The area of their surface should be about equal to that of the objects being electroplated, and the distance between anode and cathode should not be more than 2 or 3 inches. The most rapid deposition takes place when the solution of silver cyanide is saturated.

Nickel, brass, and other metals may be deposited in a similar manner. A whole volume of this series will be devoted to electro-chemistry, to which we refer the reader who desires to go more deeply into the subject.

CHAPTER XI

THE electric bell constitutes one of the most simple pieces of apparatus for signalling by electricity, and although more than half a century has elapsed since it was first introduced, no better method of signalling or giving a *call* has yet been invented for land lines. It is always used for attracting attention in telephonic communication and very often also in telegraphy.

The electric bell consists essentially of an electro-magnet and a vibrating armature piece which oscillates in front of it. If a current enters the terminal A (Fig. 59) it is conducted through the coils D D of the electro-magnet, which has iron cores, and passes out through the metal of the armature, the contact screw *g*, and the terminal B. Such a current will of course cause the electro-magnet to draw the armature down on to its terminals, the armature itself being attached by a flexible steel spring to the framework, so as to make this movement possible. In the act, however, of drawing down the armature, the contact of the screw *g*, and a prolongation of the armature

spring, is broken, and as this contact forms part of the electric circuit, the current ceases to magnetise the electro-magnet; the armature is therefore no longer attracted and springs back by virtue of the steel spring, and contact between it and the screw *g* is restored, which causes the same operation to be repeated. This motion takes place very rapidly to and fro and is communicated to

Fig. 59.—Electric Bell.

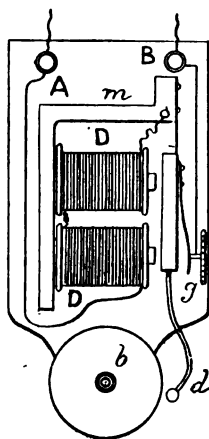a light hammer, *d*, which strikes the bell, *b*, and produces a continuous and loud ringing sound. The whole apparatus forms a simple method of drawing attention from a distance, and can always be relied upon to work properly.

The only drawback to the bell is that if the screw, *g*, is set so as to make it as sensitive as possible, a vibration of the support to which the whole apparatus is fixed, due to

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a passing train or vehicle, might be sufficient to cause the hammer to strike the gong. In railway signal-boxes where electric bells are much used it is absolutely necessary that this should not happen, as it might lead to a serious catastrophe. The bells in this case are therefore so arranged, that on closing the electric circuit, the bell-hammer only strikes the gong once, and only when the circuit is broken again outside the bell does it spring back so as to be ready for a second signal.
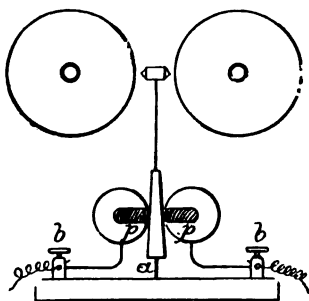
FIG. 60.—Polarised Bell.

Such vibrating electric bells will work with both direct and alternating currents, but not nearly so well with the latter. As, however, it is very often found desirable to use alternating currents, a special *polarised* bell has been devised for use with them, in which the armature, the amplitude of whose movement is regulated by screws, vibrates in a vertical plane between the two poles of an electro-magnet, bent round at right angles (Fig. 60).

No make and break mechanism is necessary as in

ordinary bells, because the alternating current is continu-
ously reversing the sign of the poles of the electro-magnet,
causing the armature and bell-hammer to vibrate, by
alternate attraction and repulsion. It is usual in these
bells, to intensify the sound by using two domes, making
use of the return stroke of the hammer.

The current is produced by a small magneto dynamo
worked by hand. This method of dispensing with primary
batteries is due to Siemens, and has the advantage that a
high E.M.F. can be generated at no expense, the power
being supplied by the operator himself.

In putting up electric bells, telephones, etc., there are
several points which must be carefully attended to, if
satisfactory working is desired; the conducting wires must
be as well insulated as possible. Mere touching contacts
should be avoided unless absolutely necessary. If possible
contacts or joints should be soldered so as to make a good
metallic connection. If any connections are made by
terminals or binding screws they must be carefully cleaned
and seen to from time to time; this remark applies
especially to the battery terminals, which are more
likely to become corroded by the electrolyte. The
general arrangement of the wires should be first mapped
out on paper and this plan carefully adhered to in
putting them up, otherwise confusion and trouble will
arise.

Telephones.—There are two very distinct methods of
transmitting the voice possible in telephonic systems:
electro-magnetic *transmitters* for use without batteries, and
transmitters on the microphone principle requiring some

external source of current. The instruments for receiving the voice are called *receivers,* and are always based on the principle of the electro-magnetic transmitter.

The first practical telephone was invented by Graham Bell, and patented by him in America in 1877; it was also invented independently about the same time by Elisha Gray, also an American. The principle of this telephone is based on the laws of electro-magnetic induction. We have already explained how a current is produced in a circuit moved relatively to a neighbouring magnet. This induced current flows in opposite directions, according as the magnet moves towards or away from the coil. If the circuit consists of a large number of turns of wire, coiled round an iron core, the inductive effect will be considerably increased. The same effect in the coil will be produced if it is wound on a permanent magnet, and a piece of soft iron be alternately moved towards and away from one of its poles. This is in fact what happens in Graham Bell's telephone. A flat, thin plate of iron is held in position in front of one of the poles of an electro-magnet, round which is wound a great number of turns of wire. The voice is projected against the thin iron diaphragm, which vibrates under its influence. An alternating current is induced in the coil, and if it is allowed to flow round the coil of a second similar telephone it is found that the second diaphragm vibrates in consequence of the alternate attraction and repulsion produced by the alternating current flowing round its coil, and this vibration gives rise to sounds similar to those which acted on the original diaphragm. This constitutes the trans-

mission of sound by electricity, and is the simple explanation of one of the most marvellous inventions of modern times.

The exact details of the size and relative arrangement of the parts of the electro-magnetic *transmitters* or *receivers* have been considerably modified since they were first introduced, but the principle remains the same.

The next chief advance in telephony was the invention of the *microphone*. This instrument replaced the transmitting part of the electro-magnetic telephone, and when used in conjunction with the original receiving instruments formed such a powerful instrument that practical telephony was assured from that date.

The idea of the microphone is due to Hughes, and its action is very much more simple than that of the old transmitters. It is found that if a circuit is completed at any point by two conducting pieces pressing against one another, the total resistance of the circuit varies according to the amount of pressure which exists between them. This fact was first noticed in 1856 by Du Moncel, but the idea of utilising this phenomenon did not occur to him. Hughes found that if he completed a circuit consisting of a battery and Bell telephone by two pieces of carbon in light contact with one another, any slight vibration of the supports of this contact immediately gave rise to sounds in the telephone. This led him to construct a still more sensitive piece of apparatus. He placed a rod of carbon, pointed at both ends, so that it was supported in a vertical position by two blocks of carbon with a hole in each, into which the ends of the rod fitted loosely.

The two blocks of carbon were fixed to a wooden stand, and with the rod formed part of a circuit containing a battery and Bell telephone. The slightest vibration of the wooden stand or of the air surrounding it produced a change of pressure between the carbon points and the blocks. The resistance of the circuit was consequently changed, and therefore the current flowing round it. This change of current had the effect of causing the Bell telephone to emit loud sounds, and in a similar way a voice could be reproduced in the telephone. The power of the instrument was still further increased by Edison, who suggested using an induction coil, whose primary was connected in series with the microphone and battery, and the secondary in series with the line wires and the Bell receiver.

This receiver has a slight resistance, and if placed in the circuit of the microphone would constitute the greater part of its whole resistance, reducing the microphone's effect, because the percentage change of resistance of the circuit, due to the change of resistance of the microphone, is smaller than it would be if the Bell telephone were replaced by the low resistance of primary of the induction coil. The larger change of current, therefore, obtained by using the latter induces a high potential current in the secondary which is better able to cope with the resistance of the Bell receiver.

A complete apparatus for telephonic communication consists, therefore : at the transmitting station, of a microphone, battery, and induction coil, and a bell-push which rings a bell at the receiving station to draw attention ; at

the receiving end, of Bell telephone receiver and the call-bell.

In towns, each person having a telephone is connected to an exchange, and by which he can be connected at will to any other person also connected to the exchange.

The line wires, connecting the transmitting and receiving stations, consist of two copper conductors of high conductivity and great tensile strength. It is found that alloys of copper and silicon, or copper and aluminium, are best
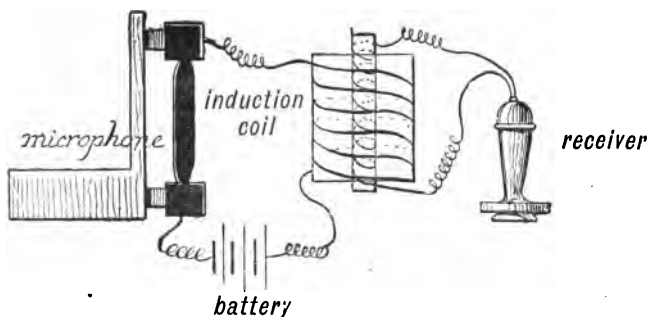

FIG. 61.—Apparatus for the Transmission of Sound by Electricity.

for this purpose. The wires have a resistance of about 80 ohms per mile, and their breaking tension is about 150 lbs. With wire weighing about 19 lbs. per mile, spans of 100 to 150 yards are possible. The wires, if overhead, are supported on porcelain insulators, which are attached at a convenient height from the ground to posts or houses; in the country trees often come in handy for the purpose. In cities the best method is to lay them underground, where they are safe from the effects of fire or weather;

this, however, is rarely done, as overhead wires are so very much cheaper.

If a telephone line does not run anywhere near any other telephone, telegraph, or electric circuit, the return wire may be replaced with economy by the earth. In this case very careful connection must be made with the earth at each end. A good plan is to solder the connecting wire to a water pipe, but if this is not available, it must be connected to a large metallic plate of copper, buried deeply in *damp* earth, which it is as well to water from time to time. It is best to avoid this earth return for telephony if possible, as it is very seldom satisfactory.

In fixing up the telephone apparatus, it should never be attached to thin partitions which are capable of vibration, but should be screwed to a solid wall, and even then it is as well to place a couple of layers of felt between the instrument and the wall.

A couple of cells are quite enough for working a short telephone line, and for longer distances three or four at the outside are sufficient, for an excess of electro-motive force produces a crackling sound in the receivers, which may be loud enough to seriously inconvenience conversation. For electric bells the number of cells required depends upon the length of the line and the resistance of the bells used, and the right number is usually found by experiment.

If a telephonic line is to be established near a telegraph line, it becomes necessary to use a metallic wire for the return, because the effects of induction, due to the making

FIG. 62.—Telephonic Station.

and breaking of the telegraph current, when an earth return is used by both circuits, becomes sometimes great enough to spoil all telephonic communication.

As a matter of fact it is very seldom that an earth return can be used for telephone lines, for the circuit is then always liable to external disturbances, such as leaks from electric light and power circuits, telegraph currents, earth currents, etc. Even with twin wires the greatest attention must be paid to good insulation of the line, otherwise the above-mentioned disturbances may make their influence felt. When all such stray currents have been eliminated from the system, the length of a telephone line may be greatly increased : in some cases conversation has been carried on quite distinctly at distances of 800 and 900 miles.

The manipulation of a telephone instrument is quite simple. In nearly every type of instrument the receivers are hung on a hook which is pivoted on an axis. This movable hook has a spring attached to it so that, when the receiver is hung on it, the hook falls and distends the spring. If the receiver is unhooked the spring is released and the hook is drawn up. It is really a switch, and the up-and-down movement causes the proper connections of line and bell, and line and telephone to be made. To enter into communication with another person through the exchange, the handle of the magneto-generator is turned, or a button is pressed. The exchange answer the signal by ringing the subscriber's bell. The receiver is then unhooked and placed to the ear, and the mouth is placed opposite the microphone. The attendant at the

exchange asks what number is required, which being given the proper connection is made there, and the two persons are now in direct communication. When the conversation is finished, the bell is again rung to signify the fact, and the attendant at the exchange disconnects them.

CHAPTER XII

THE first attempt to signal through wires by means of a voltaic current, appears to have been executed in 1811 by Sömmering; shortly afterwards the results of his investigations were made public at the Munich Academy. The signals were made by the decomposition of water in thirty-five different voltameters, each connected to a separate telegraph wire. The thirty-five voltameters represented the alphabet and several other signals, and when any of the circuits were completed, the tubes in which gas began to be liberated indicated the different letters signalled. This impracticable system appears almost laughable in these days of rapid telegraphic transmission, if it were not for the knowledge that all things must have a beginning.

As soon as Oersted made his discoveries relating to electro-magnetism in 1820, Ampère immediately recognised the possibility of using the mutual action of currents and magnets for signalling through long wires, and when Schweiger invented his multiplier which

produced powerful effects on a pivoted needle, successful experiments in telegraphy were made by Schilling in Russia, and Alexander in England. The telegraph did not become a practical instrument until Wheatstone devised his system, which however necessitated the use of five wires and five galvanometers. The signalling apparatus consisted of ivory keys which completed the circuits through the various galvanometers. Steinheil had the honour of being the first to use the earth itself as conductor for the returning current. This contributed greatly to the success of the early telegraphs.

In 1832 Morse conceived his system of telegraphy while travelling from France to the United States on board the *Sully*, but he did not disclose his plan till later, and the first experiments of any magnitude conducted on his system took place in America eleven years later, in 1843.

We have only space enough to describe a very few of the numerous telegraphic transmitters and receivers which have been invented in the last fifty years, and so we will confine ourselves to the best-known types.

Morse system (Fig. 63).—At the sending end is placed a key or switch for making and breaking the circuit. This key is formed by a pivoted lever with the fulcrum at the centre of its length, and a spring which keeps one end of the lever elevated when not in use. This end has a button attached to it, so that on pressing it, the lever is depressed, and completes the circuit. The receiving instrument consists essentially of an electro-magnet which, every time that the key at the sending end is depressed, so as to close the circuit, draws down an armature for a

short or long time. This armature is made something like the sending key, that is to say, it is a spring lever pivoted at its centre, with the armature at one end and a style at the other. A continuous band paper is drawn by clock-work past the style, and every time that the

Fig. 63.—Morse Receiving Instrument.

armature is drawn down, the style presses against the paper, and makes a short or long line, depending on the length of time the key is depressed at the sending station. The different letters of the alphabet are formed by various combinations of long and short strokes. The code of signals devised by Morse and called the Morse code, was

carefully constructed by him, so that the letters which are most frequently used require the least number of separate signals for their transmission.

Bréguet's dial telegraph.—About the year 1844, M. Foy and M. Bréguet invented a telegraph with two needles reproducing the signals of a Chappe sending instrument, but it was too complicated, and required two circuits instead of one, and consequently double the expenditure for line conductors. This instrument did not come into practical use at all, and was replaced by a much simpler instrument by the same inventors. The manipulator or sending apparatus in this telegraph, consists of a dial inscribed with the twenty-five letters of the French alphabet and a cross, making twenty-six signals in all, and twenty-six notches are cut in the edge of the dial, one corresponding to each division. A movable arm is attached to the centre, so that it can be carried round the dial by a handle. Underneath this arm is a pin which catches in each of the notches in turn, so as to make certain of it being exactly opposite a letter. The apparatus is also provided with commutator and bell, for the purpose of drawing attention, the bell being afterwards cut out of circuit by the commutator.

In the receiving instrument there is a similar dial, but the arm is replaced by a needle. When not in use, both the arm of the sending instrument and the needle of the receiver point to the cross. During the transmission of the message, the needle, acting under the influence of an electro-magnet, whose armature actuates a very simple escapement, rapidly passes round the dial in a clockwise

direction, without ever moving in the contrary sense. The needle makes a short stop at each letter forming part of the message, and also at the cross at the end of each word, in order to separate them distinctly. An operator can, with only a few days' practice, read a message sent from the transmitting station with ease and rapidity by eye. Unfortunately, although vastly superior to the older instruments in simplicity and rapidity of manipulation, Bréguet's telegraph did not compare for a moment in speed with the Morse instrument in the hands of a trained operator, and in consequence it has only been used in cases where skilled telegraphists could not be economically employed.

Hughes' printing telegraph.—In this system the ordinary sending key is replaced by a number of piano-keys, one corresponding to each letter or numeral. The receiving instrument is propelled by a powerful clock-work and weight, and contains a type-wheel with a number of teeth, on the end of each of which is òne of the letters or numerals. A continuous band of paper passes under the wheel, and when any particular key of the sending instrument is pressed down, the paper is pressed at the right moment against the corresponding letter of the type-wheel, printing it off. The whole mechanism is a marvel of ingenuity, and is very complicated. At the General Post Office in Paris, the weight is wound up by a small electric motor in order to save the operators as much labour as possible.

Bain's telegraph.—In 1843 Mr. Bain discovered that paper, when freshly impregnated with potassium cyanide, could be marked a deep Prussian blue by causing a current

to pass through it. He devised a chemical telegraph, based on this principle, in which a continuous band of paper passed over a metallic roller, connected to one of the line-wires. The other line-wire was connected to a steel point, which rubbed on the upper surface of the paper. When the current was closed at the sending end, a dark line appeared on the paper. Messages could thus be sent by the Morse code. M. Bonelli used paper impregnated with manganese nitrate, giving brown lines when decomposed by the current. Caselli also devised a telegraph which reproduced characters and drawings, but neither of these systems is in use at the present day.

Sir W. Thomson's mirror galvanometer.—This galvanometer, when used for interpreting telegraphic signals, forms one of the most sensitive receiving instruments known, and it was originally devised for use as such on long submarine cables. To the needle is attached a light mirror which reflects a concentrated beam of light, forming a spot on a scale placed at some distance from the apparatus. A very slight movement of the needle and mirror produces a very large displacement of the spot of light on the scale. A modification of the above called the *siphon recorder* (Fig. 64), also invented by Sir W. Thomson, is now universally used on long submarine cables. The mirror is replaced by a siphon of fine glass suspended by a silk fibre, and controlled by fibres connecting it to the coil of a very powerful and sensitive galvanometer. One end of the siphon dips into a vessel filled with ink and the other rests lightly against a strip of paper which moves past it, driven by a small electro-motor. The ink is spurted
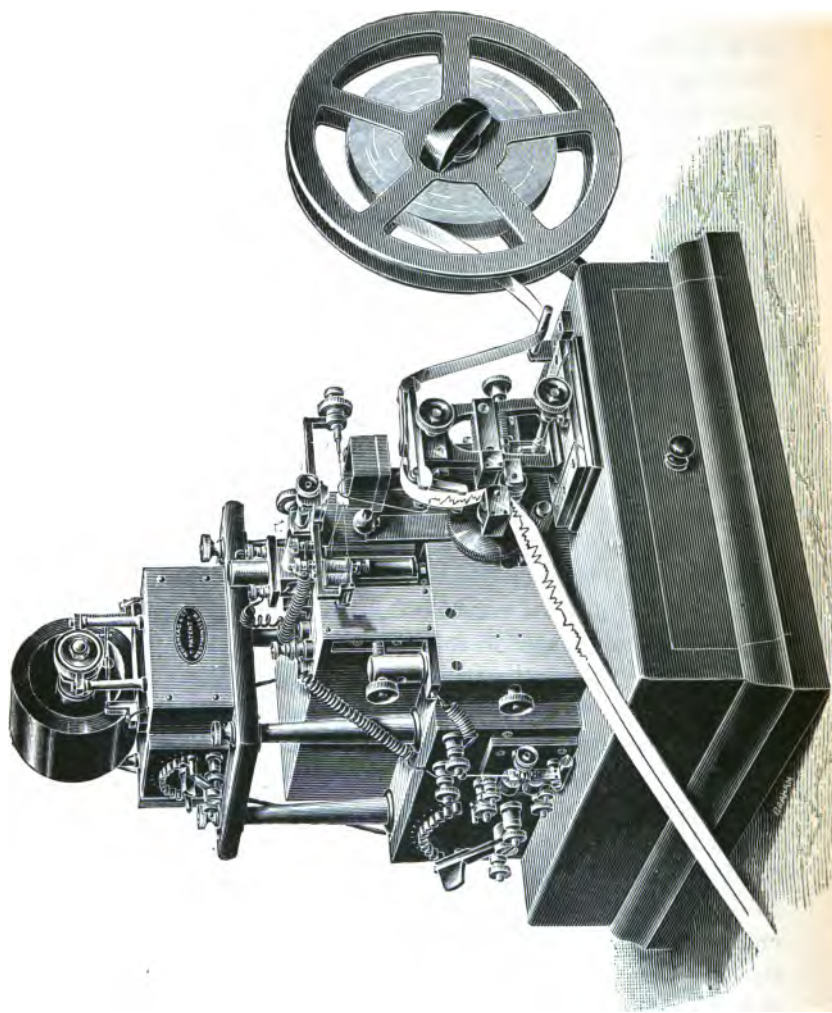
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FIG. 64.—Lord Kelvin's Siphon Recorder.

with very little friction against the strip, by charging the vessel electrically from a continuous electrophorus, also worked by the motor. The siphon is in addition kept from sticking by vibrating it in a direction at right angles to that of its natural movements due to the galvanometer coil.

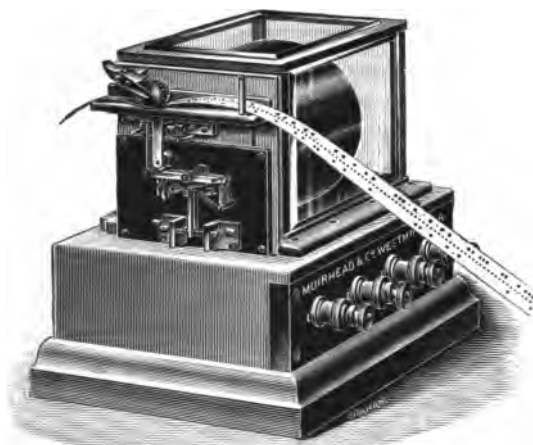As soon as telegraphs came into general use it was found

Fig. 65.—Machine for Transmitting by Perforated Strip.

that without a very large number of lines, it was impossible to cope with the business, which rapidly assumed enormous proportions. In order to reduce the number of lines in use to as few as possible, Wheatstone invented a piece of apparatus, which first of all perforates the paper strip with the message to be sent, so that afterwards this strip can be passed through a sending instrument (Fig. 65) at great

speed. By this means the chief labour of the operation of telegraphing is performed independently, and the actual time occupied in the transmission of a message is reduced to a minimum. A number of persons can be at work preparing the strips, whereas only one person can be actually using the line. The amount of work which the line can do is therefore practically limited to the speed at which the prepared strip can be passed through the transmitting machines.

It would take a large volume to describe all the highly ingenious machines that have been invented for sending the largest number of telegrams in the minimum amount of time. With the most modern instruments it is possible to send six or eight messages in opposite directions along the same line; each letter only requires one signal, and the message is automatically printed by the receiving instruments on a paper band. With certain machines 200 words a minute have been sent, which is equivalent to sending 300 telegrams of twenty words each per hour. This result would have read like a fairy tale half a century ago, and yet this enormous speed will probably seem very slow fifty years hence.

The four essential parts of a telegraphic or telephonic system are : the generator of current, the transmitting instrument, the line, and the receiving instrument. We cannot discuss here the arrangement and details of the generators, but Daniell, bichromate, Leclanché, and secondary cells are all in every-day use. The line may be submarine, subterranean, or aerial. Submarine cables, if of any considerable length, require in consequence of their

electric capacity special apparatus such as condensers, siphon recorders, etc. : these are as a rule not required on land lines. The various receiving instruments give rise to the following classification.

(1) *Optical apparatus.*—In which there is no record of the messages sent, such as the single needle instruments, Bréguet's telegraph, and the mirror galvanometer.

(2) *Acoustic apparatus.*—The message is read by the sound of armature being attracted and released, much used in America.

(3) *Recording apparatus.*—A record of the message is made by the machine on a band of paper, in Morse code : such instruments include the Morse telegraph and siphon recorder.

(4) *Printing apparatus.*—Of Hughes type, in which the message is printed in Roman characters on a strip of paper.

(5) *Autographic apparatus.*—The reproduction of writing and designs at a distance. Such instruments have been invented by Caselli, Lenoir, Edison, and others.

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